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My Daughter Nancy at the Microphone

Mildred Buchanan Flagg

Mrs. Flagg is not a broadcaster nor yet a teacher. In this symposium she represents a group whose opinions on radio in education are of considerable importance to us—the parents, the taxpayers. The author's friendly interest in the possibilities of student broadcasting provides some reason to believe that there will be popular support for the extension of such experiments as those conducted in Newton, Massachusetts.

"WHAT was the effect on Nancy of her pupil broadcasting experience?" said Principal Russell Burkhard of the Frank A. Day Junior High School of Newton as he stopped me on the street one day recently to ask about my young daughter's radio experience.

"She simply loved doing it," I answered promptly, "but I do not need to tell you that. You know it already."

"Yes, I know she liked it but just what of permanent value did she get out of the experiment?" he persisted. "I am hoping you will tell me about it in an article for one of our school magazines. Carried out entirely by pupils, it is an unusual and interesting project," he continued, "and our experience may be of value to others."

This morning I find Mr. Burkhard's assignment somewhat difficult for me. I have been trying to analyze and tabulate the effect on my fourteen-year-old daughter of the project to which he referred. There is no doubt whatever in my mind that, without heraldry, her broadcasting experience has played an important part in her development—and not only in her development but in the

mental growth of her partners in the undertaking, as well.

A little more than a year ago, Nancy first tried out for a place on the radio program at school. The test consisted in reading a selection from *Reader's Digest* for faculty criticism. She passed the test and later was invited to take part in several of the Friday morning school radio programs. One day a special article was desired for WBZ, a Boston radio station serving New England. Nancy was asked to write the skit. She did so and because of the success of the program she was asked on several other occasions during the winter to write other sketches for the same station. Toward the end of the school year she wrote and helped give two programs for national radio hookups sponsored by the National Education Association. All of these were written, directed, rehearsed, and given as pupil projects, originated and carried to completion in the community.

Much time was spent both during and after school hours in rehearsal. Pupil broadcasting was credited by the school department the same as other schoolwork. Two

hours was the time allowed by the school to those pupils who had to make the eight-mile trip into Boston. All of the trips were under faculty supervision. In fact, a teacher drove the car from the school to the radio station and back to the school. Moreover, no pupil was allowed to leave his homeroom until he had brought a note from his parent giving written permission for the journey.

If you can imagine a child living in a high state of exhilaration, seeing nothing, hearing nothing, doing nothing except that which has a vital bearing on the task in hand, you will have a faithful picture of Nancy during those hours of preparation for script writing. Her only tools were a short stubby pencil, a few dingy-looking sheets of paper, and a dusty tome or two from the public library; yet, for her, English had come to life. The process of learning to use her mother tongue had become as vital to Nancy as the quest of a news story is to a good reporter and as intensely interesting and gripping as a game of football to a college halfback. Socrates must have had some such vitalizing interest in mind when he gathered a few pupils around him and made the objective of his inquiry into this or that subject "consistent thinking with a view to consistent action."

The pupil broadcasting undertaking had provided for the boys and girls of the Frank A. Day Junior High School the very essence of true education. The youngsters were learning for the fun of it. The spirit of play had become a vital part of the learning process. Education had proved that it need not be a dead, a lifeless thing. Never was there the least opportunity to blame the pupils for a lack of interest or ambition. The undertaking had succeeded from the first in capturing their imagination. No work was too hard, no hours too long for the young people if the result they sought was attained. There were long and serious discussions about enunciation, pronunciation, and correct usage. Every opportunity had been given them by their teachers to get at

sources of information for themselves, and the importance of first- rather than second-hand information was constantly emphasized. Nancy especially was encouraged to make the independent research for historical data which the skit she was working on demanded.

The children found joy and happiness in discovering and developing their own native capacities. There was no taking of education like medicine, with a wry face and half a glass of water. Nor was there any forcible feeding by stuffing uninteresting material down unwilling throats. Fathers and mothers in Newton had new proof that pupils learn best when they have a desire to learn and a keen satisfaction in the results of their learning.

Once a French king, when engaging a tutor for his children, summarized his duties, we are told, by saying: "Make yourself useless as soon as possible." In a very real sense that seemed to be the motto of the faculty adviser, Mr. Alden Read, in this interesting project. Having placed the children in an environment in which they acted creatively and happily, he left them alone. In such appropriate surroundings they became more eager to work and more efficient in accomplishment than in some more conventional school curricula. They proved themselves capable of effective self-discipline. Never did they feel that they were passive recipients in the process of learning but always that they were active agents in that process. They knew that they were not recipients but creators. The undertaking had been bold enough to give special encouragement to their own student participation in modern affairs and they turned their faces toward it as eagerly as a blossom faces the sun.

If one were to itemize the more permanent results of the project, therefore, he might say that—

1. School standards of radio appreciation were raised since the children had learned from personal experience what good radio programs demanded.

2. Pupils were provided with a new and interesting hobby which may help them at some future time to meet the really challenging task of education; i.e., the enrichment of leisure.

3. Pupils were led to take an active interest in voice placement and development, and attention was given by them to tone, pitch, and quality.

4. Poise and confidence came from originating and carrying a project to completion. Nancy's success in writing was a stimulating, inspiring, and encouraging incentive for long imaginative stories which she has written recently.

5. Pupil contacts and interests were broadened because of radio interviews with persons of prominence and distinction in the fields of art, science, or letters.

6. Pupils were provided with actual experience in the business world where 60 per cent is not a passing mark.

Some one has said that children should be trained primarily for independence. To many this seems absurd, for they think the youth of today are already far too independent. Doubtless this is true, but they are not trained for it. The pupil broadcasting project as carried out by the Day school did afford the necessary training. At the same time it afforded training in *interdependence*. To Nancy's father and me it seems that the most important result of the undertaking

consists in the practice which she had in the finest of all fine arts—that of learning how to live with her fellows. In her radio work she learned to share and coöperate with others, for in that project each pupil had to surrender something of his independence in behalf of the success of the group. Thus they came to some slight idea of the value of coöperation and integration, in which each acknowledged his obligation to his companions.

Nancy is growing up. She is becoming less of a type and more of an individual. She is no longer so much interested in those activities which happen to be "the thing" at school as in those which represent her individual interests, writing, journalism, and dramatics. Today she reads constantly. She spends hours over books and magazines of travel, biography, and adventure. For others, all roads may lead to Rome, but for her the only road which leads to the successful accomplishment of the job at hand is the way of hard work.

Happily, and among educational Utopias, strangely, this modern, stimulating project of pupil broadcasting in which Nancy has had a part, appears to be entirely feasible at the present time for other pupils in English classes in many schools. In deepening and broadening the pupil's understanding of life, the understanding seems to justify itself.

Many Listen to Learn

William S. Paley

The distinguished quality of the American School of the Air was not achieved by happenstance. It represents good thinking applied to a problem of frantic complexities. The president of the Columbia Broadcasting System presents in the following short article the essence of the creed which is fundamental to the significant program Columbia is broadcasting for students, in school and out, who have ears with which to learn.

AMONG all the aids to education, nothing can replace the personal influence and inspiration of a good teacher. We know, of course, that by wide reading, travel, and mingling with one's fellow men it is possible to expand one's mental horizons greatly without going to school. But even if one follows this recipe for self-education, he finds that he learns most and best when he is in personal contact with other minds that stimulate his own thought.

The reason is simple. To become educated, we cannot merely make ourselves receptive, while facts are poured in. There must also be a drawing-out process, in which we are stimulated to relate these facts to our own personal lives, and thereby make discoveries concerning ourselves. It is in this process that the personal teacher is so vital. The world is full of facts, many of which for any given individual are relatively unimportant. It is the greatest work of the great teacher to help the student distinguish between all these facts—to learn to know which hold importance for himself.

All of this explains why the radio voice is not a substitute for the student's personal contact with the teacher. In its constant effort to provide, and in its never ending search for the best educational and cultural program material, Columbia does not seek to duplicate or compete with the work of the laboratory, lecture platform, or the classroom. Instead, its goal is to supplement these established educational mediums, thereby vitalizing academic instruction and widening the horizon of the classrooms.

Most educators and students are familiar with Columbia's American School of the Air, which was first established in 1930 and today has a weekly audience of millions throughout the school year. These broadcasts, prepared under the supervision of distinguished educators, typify in many ways Columbia's whole roster of educational and cultural programs. In themselves, however, they are a well-planned and cumulative course of education by radio, presented five days a week each autumn, winter, and spring.

These school broadcasts do not try to present a catalogue of all the facts that might be useful in an education. Instead, their first purpose is to help the teacher throw new light, new vividness of meaning, upon facts that may already be partly familiar. In the timeliness, the intimate approach and flexibility of radio as a medium, lies a great deal of their contribution to classroom instruction.

Thus in this year's study of literature, living American poets of eminence come to the Columbia microphone to tell the students personally about their work and their purposes. In history, the growth and building of some of our great cities are being dramatized in such a way that the listener can feel himself actually present in their formative epochs. Art is being studied not as something to be admired, but as a personal experience to be lived; and in dramatizing the lives of great artists so that their voices speak in the classroom the broadcasts not only tell a story but also stimulate the pupil to creative experiment on his own account.

In much the same way, geography is studied in this series by accompanying a radio family on a series of travels to far lands. Science for the intermediate grades becomes an adventure of discovery through distant ages. Vocational guidance is offered by dramatizing some of the actual problems facing the youth entering the economic world.

One of the most interesting courses in this year's American School of the Air is perhaps the special series of talks for students on current events, conducted by Raymond Gram Swing, editor of *The Nation*. Mr. Swing has long been familiar to the entire Columbia audience because of his talks from European capitals, and his interpretations of trends in current history have been a real contribution to thinking in these disturbed times. The national interest his talks have created illustrates an important aspect of education.

Not so many years ago it was usual to think of education as something that was often dry and uninteresting, but necessary. Today we know that we learn most easily and swiftly when a subject is most fascinating. The Columbia Broadcasting System is constantly in quest of ways to help the teacher make the classroom presentation of more immediate and personal interest to the student.

This stress on dramatic interest is not confined to Columbia's programs for organized supplementary education; it is also evident in the many other programs of educational and cultural interest which Columbia broadcasts daily for its general audience. Those are seldom labeled "educational," but their usefulness is for that reason all the greater; if a wide audience listens to them as interesting entertainment, their effectiveness is ensured.

We all know, for instance, how the musical taste of millions has been elevated in the last few years by their growing familiarity with classical music, made possible by radio broadcasts. Among these have been Columbia's regular presentation of the New York Philharmonic, the Philadelphia Symphony, the Curtis Institute of Music, the Minneapolis Symphony, "Understanding Opera," and many others familiar to American listeners. But this is just one example of radio education that extends over many fields. Millions who do not read extensively have found it is relatively easy, in the last few years, to absorb from their radio a wide knowledge of economics, of health precepts, of sociology, of national and international politics, of home management, dietetics, child psychology, and even of the drama and modern literature.

Just as the broadcasts of the American School of the Air are prepared by Columbia under the supervision of experts, these other educational and cultural broadcasts are also presented by Columbia in coöperation with recognized authorities. Many broadcasts of this nature are originated and sponsored by the Columbia Broadcasting System itself, as in the instance of the famous "America's Hour" series which won much acclaim during recent months, Walter Pitkin's "We Americans," "Columbia's Dramatic Laboratory," and C.B.S. Public Opinions programs. Others are originated and sponsored by recognized groups of national standing, to whom Columbia freely extends its facilities when these are desired. The Columbia staff coöperates extensively with such educational groups by offering its own experience in incorporating "showmanship" into their programs, thus enabling them to attract the widest possible audience for their message.

Radio in Education

R. G. Jones

The author, assistant superintendent of schools in Cleveland, Ohio, has a distinct advantage among the proponents of radio in education—he has extensive experience to support his theories. In this article he sketches the most recent phase of the experiment he has directed in student broadcasting. He avoids any dogmatic conclusions, but he dares to hope that we shall ultimately learn to hear with our ears as well as our eyes.

LAST year radio station WJAY invited the Cleveland public schools to broadcast two half-hour radio programs each week for the school year and I was asked to pilot the course. We took but one half hour and even that proved to be a considerable task. During the year WJAY sold our time from under us twice and finally we finished our programs over WHK. Both stations extended every courtesy and free time. However, WHK, with newer and more ample facilities, gave us studios for rehearsals afternoons and evenings, and this we found to be absolutely essential to a successful program.

We have, in our own schools, radio set-ups but these do not serve the purpose of a regular studio. Amateurs are embarrassed by stage fright, of course, but a practice long and wearing in the professional studio relieves the final strain. Our experiences in the radio studio, during rehearsal, had every attention from the studio's experts. I should mention here that most of the senior high schools and some of the junior high schools participated, each school providing its own individual program.

At first, we were concerned to know whether it was a good use of our time to attempt a radio program every week. It required a great deal of my own time. I was always present at the broadcast hour, either in the studio or listening in from some field post. I am impressed that the game was worth the candle.

In addition to what the participants learned in preparation, it is worthy to note

that the executives of the schools found the experience to be a fine basis for an appraisal of their own services. Among the important things which the participants learned, the following stand out in relief:

1. Techniques in speech and diction.
2. Experience with continuity writing.
3. Self-control over tension, the arch enemy of art in any field. This lesson in relaxation is worth more than silver and gold.
4. Poise, a corollary to relaxation.
5. Naturally, the joy and courage that come with achievement before so large an audience touches depths that may never have been sounded in their lives.
6. Achievement is frequently a forerunner of wholesome self-respect and, in turn, self-respect precedes character.
7. Other items in education, of course, will yield these same results, but I am only mentioning that the radio will yield these results also, and possibly in a larger measure because of the larger audience which gives a greater challenge. When one thinks of the scope of radio and what its effect will be upon a young person standing before the microphone for the first time, we shall easily realize that youth will rise, as it may never have risen before, to meet the challenge. No doubt we will all agree that this is a major interest to quicken youth.

The foregoing items are not all the means to education which result from such a practice and performance. Before these students take their places in a studio, they have concentrated and worked to a very definite end.

Then, too, radio opens up a new world in vocational guidance. Radio is to distribution what the aeroplane is to transportation in our new fields of endeavor. Radio is both a business and a profession. This experience

offers a peep into this new field of active affairs and may offer a life career to some of these participants, and no doubt will. Vocational guidance of such a practical sort is no mean business for a senior high school. Before long, the high school will not turn its product over to the colleges or loose on the street to shift for itself. Placement will be a part of our work until business resumes, as usual. Some persons will always shift for themselves, but let us think how very many never did and possibly never will find their spot in the checkerboard's king row.

But back to our subject. Probably we averaged thirty student performers at every broadcast, giving twenty-seven programs during the year. Nearly always there were large musical groups. Let us bear in mind, however, that entertainment was not the chief aim of our radio performances. Our theme throughout the year was *what do the Cleveland high schools do*.

You are aware how hard it is to get parents out to schools, except for a party where George or Mary will perform. The radio will carry this program into all sorts of nooks and corners where no school ever goes, and neither do these nooks and corners ever go to school.

Of course, a double interest was aroused in having the individual schools prepare programs. First, an intense interest throughout the district was developed in the home school program. This aroused the interests of the community in every one of the high schools. Second, from a commercial standpoint, these programs developed a very wide audience for the radio station.

We contend that such radio performances make a splendid background for a school campaign for funds with which to operate the schools. This program has no part in arguing the cause of education. It demonstrates how education is being offered. It leaves the whole subject of its value and submits its case to the audience for judgment. Ordinarily, a month or so before an election the board, the superintendent, and

all his cohorts scratch down a few figures, proceed to organize mass meetings, and make speeches to the public about finances. But the tax-saver is doing exactly the same thing. The issues become confused with both sides in controversy.

Telling the people all through the year what the schools really do—and mind you, no propaganda—is, to my mind, a better and a strictly legitimate campaign. If we put the schools on exhibit, and exhibit to the public the tax-savers' much vaunted frills, people can vote thumbs up or down without the two contending parties screaming in their ears and digging into their ribs until they cannot think.

The pupils write their own stories, or continuity if you please, of what goes on in their schools. They play, sing, dramatize their shops, make their own debates—it is their story. That is fair in any court, and it is good business for all concerned. Let the light into the corners.

Then, too, the teacher gets a chance. The manager's big job is to discover his staff's talents and develop them. This is one more test to discover teachers' latent powers. Continuity writers who can train students to tell their story, speech artists, vocal trainers, band masters, and whatnot—all are pressed into this new experience in a new field of teaching and perhaps education of the very best sort.

It is taking the schools to whatever kind of a public you have. When a mother hears her daughter in a French program over the radio or hears, in her imagination, her son conducting his father through the high school, pointing out shops, laboratories, stage dancing, she thinks, "Well, George is quite a boy, if I do say it." This is just one type of program in which we have been interested. This program will be continued during the school year 1935-1936 over WHK. The type of performance may be changed, and probably will be, but WHK thought well of last year's programs and invited us to continue. They will take over the

responsibility for the management of the broadcasts.

We have previously written about our educational schoolroom recitations. We started our radio work with arithmetic lessons, some six years ago, and finally had as many as 6,000 children in one class. We prophesied that, if we could make a success of as matter-of-fact a subject as arithmetic, we could manage other subjects. Perhaps our latest experiment is elementary science developed by Miss Mary Melrose, supervisor of elementary science in the Cleveland public schools. We have broadcast lessons in geography, English, music, mechanical drawing, history, grammar, lessons for appreciation in art—we have taught almost every subject. It can be done and, moreover, the

school marks are as good, the teaching frequently, yes, usually, better. This is because only good teachers are accepted for the radio. Whether the results in education are better or worse, who knows? Some contend personality is lost over the air; some think personal contact is necessary to influence the students. I do not regard this as a safe generalization. I leave it to you. Think of the personalities you have enjoyed over the air. There rests the case.

When our minds grow nimble enough, when our prejudices are relegated to limbo, when we come to learn through our ears as well as our eyes, when print ceases to be God in learning, then visual education plus radio may teach us in a fraction of the time it now takes.

THE average American adult reads less than one book a year, according to a survey of adult reading habits made by the Bureau of Educational Research of Ohio State University. The largest amount of reading among adults is done by women clerks and stenographers and consists chiefly of sentimental romances.

The heaviest reading in most communities is done by junior-high-school pupils and declines steadily with increasing age and education.

In view of these findings, it is probably advisable to use simpler measures of testing students' reading interests and appreciations, such as analysis of the pupil's record of free reading to discover the state of his adjustment to adult literature, to a variety of literary forms, to varied subject matter, and to differences in setting or in point of view. An immediate problem is to determine the approximate limits of intelligence required at various levels of difficulty to develop and retain a taste for reading throughout adult life. It is possible that what is ordinarily considered adult literature is forever beyond the powers of any one with an I.Q. below 120.

Excerpts from address of Dr. Paul Diederich of Ohio State University at the convention of the National Council of Teachers of English held in Indianapolis, November 28-30, 1935.

Buck Rogers in the Twentieth Century

Roger C. Fenn

It is a kind of consumers' research for radio programs, a consumers' coöperative, that the Massachusetts Civic League has set up in its radio committee, of which the author is chairman. Being fully appreciative of the constructive efforts of some program sponsors, the committee seeks to encourage among listeners a discriminating attitude, to secure expressions of intelligent interest. Mr. Fenn is headmaster of the Fenn School, Concord, Massachusetts.

WHEN two people meet, they always talk about the weather, and, judging by their conversations, there must be a good deal of bad weather at all seasons of the year and in all States of the Union, except perhaps in California. (I am inclined to believe that when Californians stay at home, there is bad weather there, too.) And now that the radio has permeated into every corner of the country about as thoroughly as the weather has, it is the radio's turn to get the unfavorable criticism. Completely ignoring the good they get from it, people rave against every aspect of the radio from the type of program to the technicalities of broadcasting and reception, and yet they do nothing more about it in a helpful way than they do about the weather they do not like. The truth of the matter is: What is bad weather to some, is good weather to others, and what are bad programs to some, are good programs to some one else.

When the Radio Committee of the Massachusetts Civic League was appointed late in 1934, it was not with the idea of forcing on all listeners the type of program approved by any small section of the citizens, but of having an organization which would work in close touch with the radio industry for the interests of the public as a whole. At the opening meeting there were prominent representatives of the protesting public on one side, and officials of the broadcasting stations and the advertising agencies on the other. Each side presented its own point of view and heard the other side's reply, and

the Committee went ahead to work with both.

What is the Committee doing? One point of attack is at the microphone end of the line, where the programs originate, and the other is at the loud-speaker end, where the listener tunes in.

Consider first what can be done at the microphone end. If the radio were like the weather, nothing could be done to change the supply at its source. If the radio were owned or controlled by the government, almost nothing could be done by the man in the street to improve the supply of programs. But one of the most fortunate things about our typically American system is that the first and most fundamental principle of the successful, privately owned, commercial broadcasting station must be that it give the listening public what the public wants. Since a very large number of listeners obviously want something different from what they now get, this Committee in Boston has organized a course of instruction in the writing of script for radio programs which will be not only attractive in nature, but beneficial and constructive as well. Those three adjectives make the A B C's of our demands. They must be attractive because the advertising programs, a necessary evil, probably, under the American system, must attract the large mass of the people. But they can be beneficial as well, giving not merely the thrills, the suspense, or the entertainment, but also giving something of permanent value. They can also be constructive, adding

something to the listener's background of history, literature, science, geography, or music. And surely every wide-awake boy or girl and every intelligent, ambitious young man or woman would prefer a diet with solid food in it to one of milk and water. One advertising agency has already made a definite effort to meet these requirements, and has produced "The Cavalcade of America," a program which has already brought to its sponsor a large measure of good will.

But it is not our purpose to dictate taste in radio programs to the public, and to force our preferences on others any more than we are satisfied to have other groups force their preferences on us. We believe in freedom of speech and the right of any individual to exercise his own judgment and taste, so long as he has due respect for the rights of others and the general good of the whole. We do want as wide a variety as possible of the beneficial programs on the air during the late afternoon and early evening. Then we want to help the listeners, particularly children, to decide which the really valuable ones are.

This brings us to the other point of attack—at the loud-speaker end of the line in the individual homes. Children being younger and less experienced must naturally have poorer judgment in general than do adults, but adults, on the other hand, often forget that they ever were children themselves, and decide that certain programs are bad without ever having heard them. The result is strained relations in the home, unhappiness, suspicion, and deceit—the most unfortunate thing that could befall a family. The remedy, however, may be easy. If the children and the parents will both agree to be reasonable, to listen together to a few programs with perfectly open minds and no passions or prejudices, and to discuss them afterwards calmly and honestly, each side will then see the other's point of view. Parents will see, perhaps, that some programs are not as bad as they had thought. And children will learn

from the adult's criticisms just what is considered good taste and bad taste in that particular house. Post cards have been prepared in large numbers, already addressed to the Radio Committee of the Massachusetts Civic League, 3 Joy Street, Boston, Massachusetts, for free distribution to any parents interested. Space has been provided for helpful comments, either favorable or unfavorable, on current programs. If hundreds of persons will fill in these cards and mail them, the committee will be kept in touch with public opinion, and will forward its findings to the sponsors or stations concerned, to the mutual advantage of listeners as well as broadcasters.

Many families have found it helpful to use these cards in still another way. A time chart has been mimeographed on each card allowing every family to enter at the appropriate hour of the day the name of the program agreed upon in that household as the best available at that particular hour. All programs listed on the time chart do not need to be educative in type, for many of us after working under pressure through a long, busy day need something light and relaxing in the evening for the good of our nervous systems. Each family meets its own needs.

Parents, furthermore, find it hard to know what programs are on the air, and when the good ones come. There are various sources of information, such as the daily papers, the monthly *Educational Bulletin* of the National Broadcasting Company, the monthly brochure published by the Radio Institute of the Audible Arts, New York City, as well as others. All these are kept on file at the library where the Massachusetts Civic League is situated in Boston. Here the Radio Committee tries to keep a collection of books, magazines, surveys, and special reports connected with radio in order that it may act as a clearinghouse of information on the subject, of service to the broadcasters as well as the public in any way possible. Members are available for radio talks to parent-

teacher associations. A file is kept of the bills before Congress so that the committee may take an intelligent and active part in supporting legislation for the best interests of the public as a whole.

Since this rapidly growing industry, with its loud-speakers within reach of nearly every man, woman, and child in the land, has an alarming power to sway great masses of our population in a very short time, it behooves this and every other radio committee in the land to accept a certain amount of moral responsibility to the public as an

important civic duty. This responsibility means keeping a watchful eye on the development of radio during these early decades of phenomenal growth, especially as these particular years are so fraught with political and social unrest, not only to be ready to meet any emergencies that may arise, but to anticipate and avert them, if possible, before they come to a head. Fortunately, those in high places who are guiding the destinies of the radio industry feel this same responsibility to a very satisfactory degree.

THE teaching of motion-picture discrimination is now being widely accepted as a regular part of the instruction of the school. That battle has been won. Our problem now is a twofold one: first, to prevent the work in motion-picture appreciation from becoming a fad; second, to keep the work informal, enjoyable—to avoid formalizing the course.

One of the major benefits to be derived from this work is the developing of a growing sensitivity to the influence of the screen. Students must be made aware of the subtle and sometimes open propaganda that is carried on in the feature pictures and often in the newsreels. In 1931-1932, for example, there were twelve shots dealing with war as compared with one dealing with peace in two different newsreels. In 1933 the proportion was seven war items to one peace item. We may expect to see more use of the newsreels in political campaigns with consequent fakery.

Further, we need a new conception of the role of the screen. For too many people the screen is a narcotic. They go to the movies to forget and not to remember—to dream but not to think. Perhaps most people always will. But there is danger in the literature and movies of escape.

An antidote to the escape movies would be the development of realistic, documentary films dealing with the life activities of the day. These might well be one- or two-reel pictures, human-interest stories—a welcome substitute for the low quality of shorts that are shown today.

Excerpts from address of Dr. Edgar Dale of Ohio State University at the convention of the National Council of Teachers of English held in Indianapolis, November 28-30, 1935.

Radio Invaded by Juniors!

Esther M. Pepin

At Warren Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts, the coach for student assistant broadcasts is Miss Pepin. She emphasizes here a point usually ignored—the fact that the microphone is friendly.

ALL radio broadcasting is still very much in the experimental stages, and student broadcasting remains in its infancy.

The criteria of student broadcasting has certain aims. The programs should make for better coördination between the home and the school in giving a picture of the sincerity with which this gesture, called schooling, is attempting to develop finer men and women, who will be better able to meet the problems of an ever changing world.

The possibilities of vocational training are limited. We are aware of the fact that radio broadcasting as a gainful occupation is not open to many. Air channels are few, necessitating a licensed control of the number of stations. Broadcasting artists of all types are too numerous, and the popularity which means financial returns is destined only for the few who capture the fancy of the public. Some of tomorrow's favored few, however, are in the classrooms of today.

Hand in hand with the glamorous appeal of broadcasting goes the curiosity to know "what makes the wheels go round." With the advent of more radio equipment in our schools, making it possible to produce experimental broadcasts within the buildings themselves, may be developed a wider vocational-training field among budding electrical engineers.

Without motivation, all teaching is haunted by the ghost of dullness which has long since given up its time-honored place in the classroom. Through student broadcasting, we find untold motivation opportunities.

To be interested is a necessity in the process of mental growth. Radio is an invention second to none, and holding a place of van-

tage in the interest span of the normal human being. Broadcasting, as a phase of the working radio, produces that quality of motivation which is essential; namely, a realization of the completion of an undertaking. The preparation is never for a remote, possible actuality.

True, student broadcasting must be student prepared. The sources of material used are culled from all school activities: scholastic, student participation in government, athletics, clubs, and vocational-training departments. Added to this wide field are the never-ending list of outside activities which are a vital part of the student's life.

Teachers of English will recognize real student broadcasting as sufficient inspiration and motivation of both spoken and written composition. The hackneyed rules for a good composition at last take on a new garb. Yes, we must have an interesting subject, good opening sentence, moving sequence, and satisfying close. What flowery bits of unnatural written language we have caused our students to write through admonitions that relatively mean little!

Instinctively the student appreciates that what interests him keenly will undoubtedly interest many others. If he is to have a listener rather than a reader, he is more likely to be natural about his form of expression.

In writing radio scripts, the young author imitates quite glibly the technique of professional script writers. He organizes the material and plans to have the program march along. This accomplishment means that the student has expressed himself simply and well on paper in what may be termed "spoken English."

Through the rehearsal and presentation

of the student broadcasting program, no matter its form of composition, can be brought out a correct naturalness of speech and security of poise. No more effective enunciation drill can be devised.

The microphone is friendly to the least attractive boy or girl. The only important things in this oral presentation are that intelligence directs the voice and imagination forms the bond of friendship between the broadcaster and his audience of individuals.

I have seen students who, due to racial and social cleavages, have been shunned, become better poised and accepted socially because success has been the open-sesame. Student radio broadcasts have succeeded in this where programs in the school auditorium have failed to break down the barriers and improve the ethical status of the entire group.

The radio program lends itself gracefully to the interpretation of literature. Through a correlation of literature and the broadcasting experience may be found valuable lessons in criticism and a nicety of discrimination.

Lack of scholastic achievement is laid at the door of faulty reading habits and ability. Broadcasting, by its very nature, demands an improvement in the reading skills. Teachers of the various content subjects should find motivation opportunities in the preparation of student radio scripts.

The activities program, being the modern expression of educational technique, can feel secure in fostering the growth and use of classroom-prepared student broadcasting. Added to the face value of the activity is the application of a life situation being a part in the growth of the child's educational, cultural, social, and ethical well-being. This possibility alone makes student broadcasting worthy of a place in the modern school curriculum.

We may dare to look forward to a popular place in the radio interests of the country. The author visualizes the possibility of not only a condescending courtesy to junior broadcasting artists, but a demand for their spontaneous, enthusiastic offerings. Headliners they may be, having a definite appeal and real place in the air channels of radio.

Education for Radio, Radio for Education

Haydn S. Pearson

The principal of the Bigelow Junior High School of Newton, Massachusetts, has boiled down his report to its essence. Perhaps the Newton experiments in radio broadcasting have disciplined the principals there as well as the students to be economical and concise in expression.

IT MAY be an open question in the minds of some people whether a public-school system should reflect the society which pays the bills, or whether it should attempt to improve the social order of which it is a part.

Certainly those of us actively engaged in guiding youth will agree, so far as we can do so justifiably and honestly, that we want to give tomorrow's adults a better preparation than we had; not only a better knowledge of facts, for as important as they are they are not enough. Too long have our schools writhed futilely if bravely under the tentacles of time's traditions. Too long have educators accepted the dictates of the past.

Because this is truly and amazingly a different world from that of a generation ago, we must change our thinking, methods, and courses of study. To keep our schools apace with the times we must talk in terms of the present.

One of the century's greatest contributions to our life is the radio. As we learn to control this infant giant, it will play an increasingly important part in our daily life. Therefore, it must be a subject of interest to school people.

The writer believes that the radio offers a two-way channel of value to the schools of our nation. Both are logical motives for introducing another activity into our already crowded program.

First, and foremost, in the author's opinion, is the fact that carefully constructed and well-presented programs will be of interest and enlightenment to the lay public. It is a fact that the general public does not

know enough about the schools. The radical press and unthinking citizens are prone to express themselves freely about the American educational system. Too often these expressions are unthinking and unjustified criticisms. Education is not afraid of criticism; it welcomes constructive criticism.

The radio offers educational leaders an opportunity to tell the public the story of education. There has been more progress in the last generation than in the two centuries previous. The public as a whole either does not know or does not understand the new motives and purposes that are leading the schools today.

Why not use the radio to tell citizens what we are doing? Let us get across the fact that our schools today do more than prepare for college, that, in fact, preparation for higher institutions is a small part of our purpose. Let us explain the new subjects in the program, the club activities, the health program, the opportunities we provide for music, art, and hobbies. Give the voting adult population an idea of the many valuable activities the school fosters today compared to the narrow field of a generation ago. The radio can do a great deal for the cause of education by educating the public.

The second point is that the radio offers a purposeful activity of great value for pupils who will become leaders and participants in later social life. It may be a debatable point as to how much motivation is necessary or desirable for pupils to participate in an activity that is of value to them. Teachers know that dramatic clubs, debating groups, and musical organizations work

toward their public presentations. And certainly that is a lifelike situation. The radio can be used to present the results of school activities, which will not only serve as motivating influences toward the best possible workmanship, but will also give the public some idea of the school activities.

Radio appearances offer a chance for correlation of activities. Boys and girls who are not fitted for speaking parts may be keenly interested in producing sound effects. The handicraft club can take projects of this sort. A group can arrange to visit a studio and see the machines used in pre-

senting programs. The mechanical-drawing class can draw up blueprints. The English classes, or radio club, can work on the script.

As our schools realize the possibilities of the radio, there will be more and more programs of a worth-while and interesting type. And the listening audience will look for the programs as a welcome relief from the blatant commercialism of the present.

Let us welcome the radio and use it intelligently as another valuable tool in our carpenter's chest of opportunities in preparing boys and girls for the life of today.

IN THE face of the clearly expressed desires of the American people for peace, the United States has increased its annual expenditures for armaments at a greater rate than is true of any other first-class power. All over the country there are impressive indications of a powerful trend in opposition to militarism; yet the press is furiously agitating for increased armaments. The newsreels, displayed to millions of Americans every week, are attempting to stir up a war hysteria comparable only to the hectic days of the World War.

The problem of peace education is therefore one of preventing the collapse of the present peace movement and of creating resistance to the powerful propaganda of those who desire war; of arousing the masses to the menace of fascism which will eventually force us into war.

There must be an all school program to which every department makes its distinctive contribution. The program should aim at: understanding of the specific factors contributing to the creation of a state of hostilities; understanding of the effects of war upon the processes of civilization; appreciation of the effects of war upon human values; identification of militant opposition to war with good citizenship; and understanding of way in which the war-makers can be most effectively opposed.

Such a program will call for a form of integration in the high-school curriculum that has not yet been developed on any large scale. It will call for the training of prospective teachers as well as teachers in service in the principles of peace education and for keeping them informed of new developments in the field of war dangers as well as of peace movements. Educational programs must constantly keep the issue before teachers.

Excerpts from address by John J. DeBoer of Chicago Normal College at the convention of the National Council of Teachers of English held in Indianapolis, November 28-30, 1935.

Radio—An Instrument in Progressive Education

Frank W. Thomas

Frank Thomas is an inventor. In the accepted sense of the word he is an inventor, with gadgets and gimmicks and pick-ups and amplifiers. But there is no phase of his extensive professional practice which is not a fair field for the same kind of exploration and discovery. What he has to say about radio in teaching is derived from the disciplined experiences in his own radio laboratory and the vigorous, imaginative work he does as an instructor in New York University and in one of the large Y.M.C.A. high schools in New York.

WHEN the broadcasting of radio programs became a reality, progressive educators saw in radio a new instrument for stimulating students to new interests, and new adventures in projects of a creative nature. They saw, in these broadcasts, possibilities for reënforcing the school programs in music, literature, history, and all other subjects in the curricula. Radio stations, for their part (prior to the formation of chains), all made some attempts at broadcasting programs intended to be, more or less, of some educational value. Later, the National Broadcasting Company, following the lead of the smaller stations, sponsored the ambitious Damrosch series intended primarily for children in the schools. Following that series, the Columbia System inaugurated the School of the Air.

That these programs fell short of expectations, and that even the current meritorious programs are not achieving their full potentialities is due to conditions in the studios, and in the schools. There has been, and still is, a crossing of purposes, a confusion of methods, and a vagueness as to objectives. The Damrosch series, for instance, though excellent music and expertly rendered, fell short, because the programs were poorly adapted (in some localities) to the age and cultural levels of the pupils for whom they were intended. Furthermore, schools faced with a new problem made the old mistake of coercing attendance at the auditoriums and

assembly rooms equipped with radio receiving sets. Some teachers made the additional mistake of requiring assignments in music, or English, based on the programs. The results of the programs and the assignments were necessarily spotty, varying in degree of excellence in proportion to the degree to which classroom teachers interposed tasks, and conditions which all but vitiated the entertainment value of the programs, and made of them "just another excuse for additional assignments."

Perhaps the greatest shortcoming, in this respect, lay in the fact that the programs were purely of the informative nature. The question and answers in the Damrosch book furnished to teachers were of the catechism type. Factual knowledge appeared to be the main objective of the searching questions. In short, the whole series amounted to a form of "passive" education—the programs, of themselves, affording no opportunity for sharing, participating, or creating.

In contrast to this series, the School of the Air sought to present programs intended to stimulate, rather than to inform. Wise teachers could take such programs and utilize them to stimulate and guide children into channels of creative expression.

The fact that a program is informative need not necessarily destroy its educational value. The very incident in the story may act as a catalytic. The very hearing of a program, under proper conditions, may

serve as the genesis of a creative act. The child, listening to a scene or a story, may be aroused, disturbed, irritated, or inspired by the action of the music performed. Consciously or unconsciously he may mull over the situation, thrill to the adventures of some historical hero, suffer or strive with one, or rise in exultation to the victory song of another. Half-formed vague tunes may run through his mind, scenes may conjure themselves up, rhymes may ebb and flow in the stream of his consciousness. But all of these will be lost, unless some kind word, an encouraging smile, or a suggesting look will crystallize them into sufficient reality to allow for expression. At such a stage, it requires but a slight touch of encouragement from a wise teacher to start such a child on a whole series of projects in history, art, music, science, or literature.

Nor should we stop here, satisfied with the creative effort of a single child, or a small group of gifted children. Radio can be the open-sesame, the magic touch for the entire class or the entire school. It can be used to stimulate and sustain pupil interest in projects in science, music, literature. It can be used to further interest in dramatics, public speaking, diction, and mathematics. Furthermore, it can be used as a coördinating medium, for the problems presented in the working out of projects may call for the instructional services of every department in the school and every instructor on the staff. Any one program may call for the coöperation of the classes in composition, in speech, shop, art, sewing, and physics. Such use of the radio provides means for directing projects in all such classes, thereby giving new significance to the place of any subject in the life of the pupils.

Thus far we have discussed theoretically the use of radio in progressive education. It is our purpose next to discuss in detail several typical projects, in which radio can be made to play a significant part. The lack of equipment or of technical knowledge need not frighten any one tempted to try them.

Most of them were used first by the author in rural schools, where there were no laboratories, no classes in music, no shops, and no classes in science. Later, the same projects were tried with equally good results in eastern schools, boasting the latest and the best in everything. What is given below is a composite of the activities and conditions involved. The reader may draw whatever items suit his fancy, his time, his school, or his equipment.

THE RADIO PROGRAM

This may range from a single project, prepared by a small committee in any one class, to an elaborate school program involving the entire school. The equipment used may vary, in proportion to the magnitude of the project. For most classroom projects no equipment is required. In fact, too much equipment stultifies the inventive genius of the children and gets in the way of the show. As early as 1920, the author staged a two-hour radio program with no more equipment than a disc and a small wire screen for a microphone, a siren whistle (ten cents) for static effects, a bed sheet to separate the performers from the audience, a cheer leader's megaphone for a loud-speaker, and a gasoline lamp to cast the shadows of the performers on the bed sheet which also served as a screen. We anticipated television.

Any class in the school may utilize the radio project. The literature classes may dramatize scenes from selections read in class. Other students may coöperate on committees in presenting radio sketches in place of the required book reports. Classes in composition may present original skits which they have written in place of the run-of-the-mine compositions. Students in social-studies classes may present scenes from history or current events. The sewing classes may prepare instead of the usual reports radio lessons in foods and sewing. They may assist other classes in planning costumes, and in checking information on costumes,

manners, decorations, and other problems involved in presenting literary or historical sketches. Science classes may present simple demonstrations of principles involving radio. They may reenact great moments in science, or they may demonstrate the science involved in transmission, fading, time belts, radio ship-to-shore communications, and many other topics which suggest themselves to boys once they are on the trail. In fact, there is no class which cannot take from radio some suggestions for stimulating and enriching the assignments in outside readings or projects already in vogue.

Such projects mentioned above may require and stimulate interdepartmental cooperation. There is no reason, for instance, why the boys in science and the girls in sewing should not expect their composition teachers to help them with the English involved in the preparation of those projects. There is, further, no valid reason why the composition teacher may not accept such English work in place of the formal work in composition. The classes in speech may use material from such projects as practice material in their exercises for clear diction, for enunciation, for voice control, and for public speaking. The science classes and the shop classes may be called upon to construct equipment required in the more elaborate programs. The mathematics classes may furthermore teach the mathematical formulas required in physics and radio.

THE RADIO CLUB

Frequently, the radio club arises out of needs revealed in the working out of some of the projects mentioned above. Once the club has been started, it may follow any number of ramifications, all of which can be turned into significant educational experiences. Interest may be developed in radio construction, in broadcasting, in code, and other aspects of radio. The boys may build radio sets ranging from simple crystal sets to elaborate multitube sets, depending on the equipment available, the financial status of

the boys, and the training of the sponsor. In the ordinary physics classes, there is no reason why the sponsor could not direct the boys as far as they wish to go. Often, a few interested boys will set the pace for the instructor, and before he is aware of it the boys actually will be teaching him. Equipment and costs should be no barrier, of course. The author started a radio club in a rural school by having the boys construct simple crystal sets requiring no more material than bell wire, galena crystals, and ordinary clothespins. The entire cost of each set was twelve cents. The earphones, costing one dollar and a half, were bought cooperatively. Some of the boys in this group later constructed multiple tube sets, and went to college to specialize in physics and in radio engineering.

Even if the outcomes of similar clubs may not achieve such striking results, still the radio club has values. In the first place the members enjoy working together, planning circuits, competing for distance, planning and designing sets, and in building beautiful cabinets to house their sets. Then, too, through radio the boys may be made to see new significance in physics, in mathematics, and in the other sciences.

RADIO IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Perhaps the one department that can reap the greatest harvest from the use of radio in education is the English department. The ramifications into which the teacher of composition, literature, or speech may guide students are too numerous to mention here. She can, for instance, utilize any and all projects mentioned above for the teaching of composition, grammar, sentence construction, diction, terseness, descriptive and forceful writing. If wise, she will get out of the way of the creative endeavors of those pupils and confine herself merely to giving advice on how to improve the effectiveness of their writing. Such projects lacking, the teacher of composition may suggest possibilities. Merely by asking "How many of you would

like to be radio announcers?"—or "How would you like to broadcast one of our games?"—or "How would you like to dramatize that scene for a radio sketch?" she may develop an infinite variety of leads which will furnish enough material for a year's work in composition. By giving the pupils opportunities to try their talents at writing radio script and continuity, by giving them opportunities for speaking into a microphone (make-believe or real), she can bring to the consciousness of her pupils new problems in distinct speech, cultured speech, and pleasant voice. Furthermore, by reminding students "Your audience cannot see you," or "Would the audience be able to understand you at that speed?"—or "Do you speak that way normally?" she will put into the grasp of the pupils the basis for inter-pupil and self-criticism. The speech teacher would, of course, be losing splendid opportunities if she failed to coöperate with the composition and literature teachers.

In literature, students may make cuttings from plays, novels, short stories, and poems. They may cast and direct their own productions, and present such scenes as radio plays, either in their literature classes to other classes or at assemblies. Students may be permitted to present such plays in lieu of term and book reports. In producing such skits, students learn to sense dramatic situations and to write and work coöperatively for securing certain effects and for transferring such effects to audiences. They learn further the need for planning, writing and rewriting, organizing, and visualizing ideas and situations. Naturally, properly stimulated, they will read other stories as possible material for future programs.

RADIO IN SPEECH CORRECTION

The speech-correction aspects of radio fall into three classifications. The first, that of utilizing radio programs to point out speech problems and suggest improvements, has already been indicated above. The second, that of utilizing the commercial broad-

casts, is of doubtful value. If we could be certain that pupils would take as their standards only the best of the radio personalities, the problem might be simple. Unfortunately, however, there has developed during the past three years a group of comedians who place a premium on bad speech. And, unfortunately, pupils prefer such comedians to top-notch radio announcers and speakers. Brought to task for such perversion of standards, pupils may reply that such comedians command the best salaries in radio. The less said of this the better.

The third aspect of utilizing the radio in speech training lies in the use of equipment. A simple inexpensive microphone connected to the regular radio will provide a public-address system which will enable students to speak into microphones and to be heard through the cone speaker. All of the effects of radio are there. Students listening to their colleagues may offer suggestions for better speech, better articulation, better voice, etc. The teacher utilizing these suggestions can accomplish a good deal. A more expensive method involves the use of a recording machine. But since such an instrument does not come directly under radio, we shall have to dispense with the discussion of its use as a teaching instrument.

RADIO TO ENCOURAGE SHY PUPILS

Through the use of the radio, usually shy or timid pupils may be encouraged to participate in class programs. By telling such students that the audience will not see them, and that if they make a mistake no one will know who made it, the teacher usually gets shy pupils to try. When such students "get across" for the first time, they do not hesitate a second attempt. Once they have overcome the fear of the audience, and once they have experienced the thrill of applause, they are willing to try again. It therefore behooves the teacher to make certain that such pupils attempt easy material at first, and that a healthy round of applause will be forthcoming, even at the slightest effort.

Doubtless there are many other ways in which the radio may be utilized in education. In all cases the essential values to be derived from such use should lie not in the perfection of the performances. The entertainment may be crude and unfinished, the quality of the equipment faulty and inefficient, but if

the pupils have conceived the plans themselves, and brought them to fruition by their own efforts, then they have learned more from one such activity than they would from the best of programs in which they have had only a passive part.

Flunking Susie's Homework

A LITTLE while ago, a college alumnus, otherwise in good standing, complained bitterly. "I don't see," he said, "why school teachers expect us busy college graduates to keep up. My little daughter Susie is only ten, but they teach her things so hard to work out that I just had to give up trying to help her with her homework." Now, the worst of it is that the school which this child attends is just an ordinary school in a fashionable suburb, and the subjects taught do not differ greatly from the ones he studied at her age; yet he himself passed all his college courses, and a framed sheepskin decorates his office. He is a member of the university club in a neighboring metropolis, an officer of his alumni association, and attends all the football games of his Alma Mater held within a radius of several hundred miles. "I guess," he concluded ruefully, "I'll have to change Susie's school." I had to caution him against this dangerous course and warn him that, if the child ever fell into the hands of what they call nowadays the progressive school teachers, he would be hopelessly out of luck so far as holding the intellectual pace of his ten-year-old was concerned. I suggested that it would be safer to have his wife slave over the homework, even though she is only a devoted mother, plays bridge, detests reading clubs, and has no collegiate pretensions. Now the trouble in this poor man's case is not that he was born dumb; he has only become so in the process of the years. It is, alas, the way of the world with many alumni.

It is, of course, true that in some subjects, notably the sciences, it is difficult for the graduate, without his college library and laboratory, to keep up with later developments. But where the will exists, the way will be found. The local high schools have laboratories and nearly every town has a library. This fatty degeneration of too many alumni goes back to a vice not yet eradicated from our college system. During his undergraduate years, the professor gave him lectures, chose his books, and even indicated the pages to be read. He was living under a régime of forced feeding, and when this forcing stopped what he called his education stopped also. His was not a healthy, vigorous, growing organism. He was never intellectually and culturally self-supporting, but a patient on a supervised diet. He has not been equipped with a self-starter and must be elaborately primed by some one else before he will work. All that he got out of college was the habit of intellectual dependence, and, in spite of his cocksurenness, this becomes more painfully evident as he grows older. . . .

CHRISTIAN GAUSS, in *The Saturday Evening Post*

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Is War Inevitable?

O. Myking Mehus

A little worse than the jingoists are the fatalists who shrug their shoulders and observe with sodden finality, "You can't change human nature—we shall always have wars, and the next one is not far off." But there is a vigorous group of intellectuals who believe that it is both possible and desirable to employ the machinery of social control which will prevent wars. We have invited Professor Mehus, eminent sociologist, member of the faculty of the Northwest Missouri State Teachers College at Maryville, to present the evidence for peace. His article is timely and has many implications for curriculum revisers.

IT is encouraging to read the stirring words of Major General John F. O'Ryan, Commander of the Twenty-seventh Division in the World War, who says: "The American people can end war in our time if they get on the job. . . . Let us wage peace. . . . I would be a traitor to my country if I did not do everything in my power to abolish war."¹

In this paper we want to present some of the arguments that are raised against the proposition that war can be abolished and point out some of the fallacies in this line of thinking.

One of the arguments most frequently heard is that it is human nature to fight and that we cannot change human nature. In other words, that war is based on a deep-seated human fighting instinct and that it is impossible to change it. In the first place, in this connection, it is significant to note that most of the modern psychologists have repudiated the ancient theory of a fighting instinct.

In a questionnaire sent to the 528 members of the American Psychological Association by Dr. John M. Fletcher,² this question was asked: "Do you as a psychologist hold that there are present in human nature

ineradicable instinctive factors that make war between nations inevitable?" A total of 378 or 70 per cent of the psychologists answered the questions. Of this number, 346 voted no, 10 voted yes, and 22 voted in such a way that their answers could not be classified (possibly they were politicians!).

This vote is especially significant as it comes from a scientific body that is not swayed by prejudice or personal bias, but bases its conclusions on scientific data.

However, if it were instinctive to fight, it is hard to understand why so few young men enlisted in the World War in our country in 1917. It is said that only one out of every eighty-seven within the draft age enlisted before he was drafted, and that out of 10,000,000 who were enrolled in the draft 9,000,000 claimed exemption on one ground or another. If this fighting instinct be so strong that it will prevent us from abolishing war, it seems to have been singularly dormant among the American youth in 1917.

In this connection we want to quote a poem by Thomas J. Walker, editor of *School and Community*, the official organ of the Missouri State Teachers' Association. The poem is entitled "Whose Lives Their Country Took"³ and is as follows:

Eleven years have joined the lengthened past

Since Hertha's heart the peace of silence felt

From Discord's drums of dissonance that dealt
Destruction to men's minds and souls so vast

¹Frederick J. Libby, "What Can I Do For Peace?" National Council for Prevention of War, 532 Seventeenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., pp. 1-8. The original quotation appeared in *The New York World*, January 22, 1922.

²John Madison Fletcher, "Verdict of Psychologists on War Instincts," *Scientific Monthly*, August 1932, pp. 142-145.

³*School and Community*, November 1929, XV: 9, front cover page.

Inanimated nature stood aghast
And planets wondered that where Christ had
dwelt,

And left His name, such seas of blood were spilt,
Such heaps of heads at pagan altars massed.

But on this day we prate of those who died
As though they *gave*—we should confess we
took—

Their lives! Ignobly to ourselves we've lied,
Nor dared to give our hearts an honest look!
Such hypocrites! And sunk to such a level!
Untrue to God, disloyal to the devil!

The fighting instinct does not seem to have been very effective in Europe either, for it is interesting to note that all kinds of lies had to be resorted to in order to arouse the young men to the fighting mood. We are all familiar with the lies that were circulated among the allies in regard to the large number of Belgian children who had their right hands cut off by the German soldiers. In fact we were almost led to believe that this brutal practice was one of the chief sports of the German soldiers. And yet it is a fact that when Lloyd George⁴ and ex-Premier Nitti of Italy made a thorough investigation in Belgium after the war they could not find a single Belgian child that had had its hand cut off by the Germans nor could they find any Belgians who had ever seen a child thus mutilated. It was a lie, pure and simple, to arouse the fighting fervor of the allies. Other lies were freely circulated that we need not dwell on here as they have been vividly told in *Falsehood in War-Time* by Ponsonby, a member of the Parliament of Great Britain.⁵

The so-called fighting instinct did not seem to function very effectively among the German youths either, for it became necessary for the German militarists to resort to vicious lies to bolster up the fighting spirit of the Germans. They were told, for instance, that the Indians in the American

army would scalp alive every German soldier that fell into their hands; that the Negroes in the American army carried sharp razors with which they would slash the throats of all the German youths they captured; and, finally, that the American doughboys had taken a solemn vow that they would never take a single German prisoner, but that they would kill in cold blood any one who threw up his hands and yelled *Kamerad*. Now it is undoubtedly true, as was stated by Private Peat, that throwing up one's hands and yelling *Kamerad* did not always mean that the German boy's life would be spared, but certainly it was a deliberate lie to say that that was the accepted policy of the American army.

The so-called fighting instinct seemed to be singularly absent in the trenches. One of my psychology professors at the University of Minnesota related in class how, when he was in the British army, he made it a point to ask the soldiers whether or not they enjoyed fighting. He put this question to hundreds of soldiers and he found only one who said he thought it was fun to fight—and he was a red-headed Irishman!

It seems evident, therefore, that there are no facts to substantiate the belief that the so-called fighting instinct is so strong that it is one of the major obstacles in the way to permanent world peace. On the other hand, we have an abundance of evidence to show that it certainly did not function in the last war.

It is also interesting to note that peace has been preserved between Canada and the United States for over one hundred years and this so-called fighting instinct has not interfered to any extent. In fact peace has been preserved along a frontier of three thousand miles that has not been guarded by a single fort or a single soldier, and the Great Lakes have not had a gunboat or a warship on their waters for over a century. This seems to suggest that nations can live side by side without being led into conflict by any fighting instinct, and that wars must

⁴ Sherwood Eddy and Kirby Page, *What Shall We Do About War?* (Eddy and Page, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City, 1935), p. 19.

⁵ Arthur Augustus Ponsonby, *Falsehood in War-Time* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1929), XIV+192 pages.

be deliberately brought about by lies and false propaganda and other causes not due to any inborn trait in human nature.

The French and the Germans in Europe do not hate each other because of any fighting instinct, but because they have been trained to hate each other. In this country, even though we have now more than 13,000,000 foreign-born residents we have no wars between them because here we train them to respect each other and live together peacefully. In the State of New York alone there were in 1930 the following number of foreign-born residents: 629,322 Italians, 481,306 Russians, 350,383 Poles, 349,196 Germans, 293,225 Irishmen, 147,874 Canadians, 146,485 Englishmen, and 142,298 Austrians. No warlike tendencies were manifested among these various groups. When it is found in Europe it is due to deliberate propaganda and not to any fighting instinct.

Since it is clear that there is no fighting instinct that brings on wars it is hardly necessary to dwell on the point that human nature cannot be changed. According to behavioristic psychology, this thing we call human nature is built up out of the habits we inculcate in infants and young children. In other words, we can make our children warlike or peaceloving. We need no longer fear that this bogeyman, the fighting instinct, will get them. All we have to do is to train them in the ways of peace in the home, in the school, and in the church.

Another favorite argument of those who say that war is inevitable is that we have always had wars and therefore we shall always have wars. In the first place, it is doubtful that the human race has always been warlike. Anthropologists maintain that in the distant past primitive people did not carry on war against one another, but co-operated for mutual protection against the wild animals. On the other hand, it is true that wars have been with us for a long, long time. This does not necessarily mean that we must continue to have wars in the future. Other evils that have been rooted just as

deeply in human thinking as war have been abolished and are now no longer tolerated.

Human slavery was undoubtedly just as ancient an institution as war, and yet we find that it has been eliminated in practically all parts of the civilized world, and today we are all horrified when we read in our papers that there yet remains a trace of it in Ethiopia and in the interior of Africa. It is interesting to note that slavery has been defended by Christian gentlemen even as war has been defended. In our own country before the Civil War certain groups of the Christian clergy argued that slavery was a divine institution ordained by God Himself. Today a statement like that seems almost sacrilegious.

The inferior position that has been allotted to women dates back many, many thousands of years and has, through the ages, received the sanction of church and state. In the Middle Ages certain church leaders even debated the question as to whether or not woman had a soul. When Marian Evans wrote her books, she realized that they would not be accepted if the public knew they had been written by a woman so she wisely declared that the author of the books was George Eliot, and as a consequence her books were acclaimed highly and were read widely. One of our leading women's colleges in America was founded by a woman because she heard a man facetiously declare that women did not have brains enough to learn the alphabet. And even as late as 1915 there was tremendous opposition against giving women the ballot. All these deep-seated prejudices have been removed and today women are treated with respect and consideration, and all the walks of life are open to them.

Witch burning is another evil that has been abolished. Dueling, too, is a thing of the past. Piracy is no longer heard of, nor are religious wars. These are all evils that were just as firmly intrenched in human thinking as war is today, and they have all been discarded. Why cannot we discard war

too if we really are determined to do it?

A third argument that is sometimes heard is that war is necessary in order to make a nation strong and virile. This is indeed an infantile argument. How can war make a nation strong? How does killing off the best young men, the strongest and healthiest, develop a nation? In what way did killing 10,000,000 of the finest young men in Europe make any of those nations stronger? What would we think of a farmer who would take his herd of 100 cattle and shoot down the ten best in order to improve the herd? Would we not justly think that he was a fit candidate for the insane asylum? What then shall we think of supposedly rational human beings who argue that the way to keep a nation strong is to have a war ever so often.

Sweden has not had a war for a hundred years and nevertheless her young men are as strong and robust as can be found anywhere. Does any one seriously believe that the young manhood in Denmark would degenerate if she abolishes her army as she was thinking of doing? Biologists tell us that it is struggling against the environment and not against other human beings that makes a nation strong. Unquestionably one of the main reasons why Rome fell was because continued warfare had depleted her population of virile men. We can almost hear the Roman recruiting officer say to the weaklings: "You are not good enough to be a Roman soldier; stay at home and be a Roman father."

Then we are told by those who defend the war system that wars are necessary because they settle moral issues. This is indeed hard to understand. How can butchering human beings ever settle a question of right and wrong? No nation ever won a war because it was in the right—war is always won by a nation that has the most strength, the most man power, the most supplies, the most resources, and the best morale.

The Civil War was won by the North, not because the North was in the right and the South was in the wrong, but it was won

by the North because the North had the most resources and the most men. We are told that the Civil War was justified because it freed the slaves. Historians dispute this and say that it was a monstrous blunder and could have been avoided. They point to the fact that there was a growing sentiment in the South against slavery and that by 1890 the Negroes would undoubtedly have been freed without any war and without the bitterness that was engendered by the reconstruction period. Historians point to the fact that other nations have freed their slaves and serfs without resorting to war.

And further, our attention is called to the fact that the Civil War did not really free the Negroes. Does anyone who sees the way that Negroes are treated today believe that they are really free? Can they vote like other free citizens? Can they hold office? Can they join the churches and clubs they desire to join? Can they ride Pullman cars like other free citizens? Why then are the Negroes not free today? Can we not lay much of the blame on the reconstruction days that followed the Civil War when the ignorant and helpless Negroes were made dupes by the corrupt carpet baggers from the North? Is it not possible that if the Negroes had been freed through peaceful means that today they would have more liberties than they are enjoying now and we should have less race friction?

Many believed that the last war would bring about a new heaven on earth. Instead we had a moral slump in every country that was touched by the war. We all remember the profiteering that took place during the war. How many of those profiteers were punished? The *American Legion Weekly* carried a series of six articles on "Who Got the Money?" by Marquis James in its issues from September 8 to October 13, 1922, inclusive, in which they exposed many of the worst profiteers. They mentioned names, gave facts and figures, but as far as I recall nothing much was done about it as public opinion had been lulled to sleep by the war.

When the main business of a nation is to kill human beings it is no wonder that we do not become wrought up over such minor sins as stealing and fraud. It seems that the last war paralyzed the moral consciousness of the American people as nothing else could have done. We had political corruption following the war to an extent that was never dreamed of before. We had a national avariciousness that will not be eradicated from the national consciousness for years to come. It is no wonder that thousands of ministers have declared, "I never expect to bless another war," and that the Federal Council of Churches said, "The war system of the nations is the outstanding evil of present-day civilization. It is the most ominous antichristian phase of modern life."⁶

If we are to eliminate war, we must begin to tell the truth about war. As a State Senator in Missouri recently said, "We must realize that killing in war is murder. When we begin to realize that, wars will be abolished." We must tell the plain unvarnished truth.⁷ We must remove the glory and glamor from war and point out its horror and futility.

In a brilliant Armistice Day sermon preached November 12, 1933, Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick said:

Where does all this talk about the glory of war come from, anyway?

"Charge, Chester, charge! On, Stanley, on! were the last words of Marmion."

That is Sir Walter Scott. Did he ever see war? Never.

"How can man die better
Than facing fearful odds,
For the ashes of his fathers,
And the temples of his gods?"

That is Macaulay. Did he ever see war? He was never near one.

"Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well,
Into the jaws of Death,

⁶ A Message to the Churches of Christ in America, from the Federal Council's Commission on International Justice and Goodwill, 1924, 105 East 22d Street, New York, N.Y.

⁷ For peace-library recommendations, see page 412.

Into the mouth of Hell
Rode the six hundred."

That is Tennyson. Did he ever see war? I should say not. That is where the glory of war comes from. We have heard very little about it from the real soldiers of this last war. We have had from them the appalling opposite. They say what George Washington said it is, "The shame of mankind." The glory of war comes from poets, preachers, orators, the writers of martial music, statesmen preparing flowery proclamations for the people, who dress up war for other men to fight. They do not go to the trenches. They do not go over the top again and again and again.⁸

We must be convinced that it is possible to abolish war. Our faith must be stronger than that of the good old woman who attended prayer meeting and was told that if her faith were as a mustard seed she could remove mountains. When she came home that evening, she decided to test this out and she prayed the Lord to remove a hill that was in front of her home and obstructed her view. However, the next morning when she got up, the hill was in its usual place. "Yes, that is just what I thought," she said.

We were told that the last war was a "war to end war"; and that was the ideal for which our boys offered their lives. We can almost hear them saying to us as they died,

Take up our quarrel with the foe.

To you, from falling hands we throw the Torch,
be yours to hold it high;

If ye break faith with us who die,

We shall not sleep, though poppies grow in Flanders field.

That foe in the real sense was not Germany, but it was war and its horrors. To what extent are we holding high the torch that will bring about better understanding between nations? To what extent are we exterminating the seeds that may develop into hate and jealousy between nations? Are we still teaching the old nationalistic doctrine of "My country right or wrong"? Or are we inculcating into the minds of young children the Christian doctrine of "Human-

⁸ Harry Emerson Fosdick, "The Unknown Soldier," reprinted in the Congressional Record by Hon. James P. Pope of Idaho, Senate of United States, June 16, 1934, pp. 5-6.

ity first"? Are we stressing the motto of university and college cosmopolitan clubs—"Above all nations is humanity"? Do we believe with the National Education Association that "War is an outgrown barbarism which should be rejected by civilized nations"?

In this article we have considered the objections that have been raised against the practicability and possibility of abolishing the institution of war. We have pointed out the fallacies in these arguments. We have tried to show that war does not emanate from any so-called fighting instinct; that society has abolished other evils that have been just as firmly rooted in human thinking as war is; that war does not make a nation strong; and that war does not settle moral issues, but rather brings about a decided slump in a nation's moral character. Finally, we have indicated that war will be rejected by civilized society when it realizes its horror and is convinced of its utter futility.

For your peace library the author recommends:

Erich Remarque, *All Quiet on the Western Front* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1933), 319 pages.

Kirby Page, *National Defense* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1931), 403 pages.

C. H. Hamlin, *War Myth in United States History* (New York: Vanguard Press, 1927), 102 pages.

Robert Sherriff, *Journey's End* (New York: Coward-McCann, 1929), 204 pages.

Frederick A. Barber, *The Horror of It* (New York: Brewer, Warren and Putnam, 1932), 111 pages.

Humphrey Cobb, *Paths of Glory* (novel) (New York: Viking Press, 1935), 263 pages.

Leslie Howard, *Paths of Glory* (play) (New York: Samuel French, 1935), 174 pages.

Florence Brewer Boeckel, *Between War and Peace* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928), 591 pages.

Guiles Davenport, *Zaharoff—High Priest of War* (New York: Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, 1934), 319 pages.

Georges Seldes, *Iron, Blood and Profits* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1934), 397 pages.

Beverley Nichols, *Cry Havoc* (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1934), 275 pages.

H. C. Engelbrecht, *Merchants of Death* (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1934), 308 pages.

Smedley Butler, *War Is a Racket* (New York: Round Table Press, Inc., 1935), 52 pages.

Thomas Curtis Clark and Winfred Ernest Garrison, *One Hundred Poems of Peace* (New York: Willett, Clark and Colby, 1934), 90 pages.

Improvement of Teaching Technique Through the Demonstration Lesson

Reinhardt H. Ruhnke

In the high school good learning is not an accident. It is the result of good teaching. Good teaching is achieved by those who take the trouble to learn and to practise precise techniques, techniques that conform with the laws of learning. The assistant superintendent of schools in Milwaukee offers here a statement of the principles he has derived from extensive experience in assisting teachers to learn effective methods through the medium of the demonstration lesson.

WHEN undirected and promiscuous visiting was in vogue in our schools it was done during school time—often with no material, mental, or inspirational improvement noticeable after the visit. In other words, the growth or uplift through this uncontrolled agency was at that time practically nil. One teacher said, "In most cases I learned what not to do." Now, how can we raise the standards of teaching, how can we get individual interests, then *group interests*—not individual interests, isolated, few and far between—functioning along the line of right attitudes toward learning to teach? This after all is our problem.

The demonstration lesson has been an important factor in the improvement of teaching in the Milwaukee public schools during the past ten years. The undirected, promiscuous visiting was followed by a plan of directed and controlled visiting which included for the first four or five semesters the young, most recently appointed teachers. Because of their large number they were assigned to visiting groups on the basis of experience. The demonstrations were held during school time under regular classroom conditions, substitute teachers taking the places of the visiting teachers. When the depression arrived it was necessary to curtail expenses and the demonstrations were held after regular school hours; that is, from four o'clock to five.

Attendance was purely voluntary and became so large that it was necessary to ask prospective visiting teachers to telephone their reservations to the central office. Accommodations for eighty to one hundred teachers were usually reserved for each lesson a few hours after the receipt of the notice at their respective schools. The following notice of demonstrations sent to teachers and principals by the central office shows a little of the demonstration work carried on during the first semester of 1934-1935:

Demonstration Lessons—December 11, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18, 20, January 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 18, 22, and 24. Special arrangements have been made at the schools for the dates listed in order that teachers may, voluntarily, observe and discuss the details of a well-organized lesson or lessons as taught under actual conditions in the classroom. All of these demonstrations will be held at four o'clock. In order that the attendance may be limited to comfortable classroom capacity teachers will please telephone their names and the date of the lesson chosen to the central office.

GEOGRAPHY—8A—*Humboldt Park School*—Teacher, Mae Greenwood. India. (Series of two lessons—see also lesson on December 18. The interim will be given over to "supervised study.") Development of the problem. Tuesday, December 11, 4.00 P.M.

READING—4A and 4B—*Silent Reading—Kagel School*—Teacher, Eleanor Duclon. Types of questions. Wednesday, December 12, 4.00 P.M.

READING—7A and 7B—*Silent Reading—Trowbridge Street School*—Teacher, Jennie B. Joyce. Use of various types of questions, stressing the

development of the ability to form judgments. To be followed by a lesson in organization. Thursday, December 13, 4.00 P.M.

READING—8B and 7A—Audience Situation—*Trowbridge Street School*—Teacher, Lillian Kaye. Ultramodern poetry. Discussion—comparison with poetry of other periods. Friday, December 14, 4.00 P.M.

ORGANIZATION IN READING—7A and 7B—*Trowbridge Street School*—Teacher, Jennie B. Joyce. Organization of the lesson given as a silent reading lesson on December 13, 4.00 P.M. Monday, December 17, 4.00 P.M.

GEOGRAPHY—8A—*Humboldt Park School*—Teacher, Mae Greenwood. India. Follow-up lesson of the one given on December 11. Discussion of the suggested topics of the pupil-made outline suggested during "supervised study" periods. Tuesday, December 18, 4.00 P.M.

CHARACTER EMPHASIS IN SILENT READING—8B and 7A—*Dover Street School*—Teacher, Ruth Ohde. The types of questions will have as their objectives the emphasis of important emotional phases of character. Thursday, December 20, 4.00 P.M.

HISTORY—8B and 7A—*Humboldt Park School*—Teacher, Clarence Kamrath. Problem development in history. "The Mechanical Age in America Beginning a Century Ago." Tuesday, January 8, 4.00 P.M.

READING—5B—Silent Reading—*Greenfield School*—Teacher, Adelia Fager. Skills and types of questions. Wednesday, January 9, 4.00 P.M.

HISTORY—7B—*Trowbridge Street School*—Teacher, Jennie B. Joyce. "How England Became Supreme in North America." Solving a problem through pupil activity with the use of reference books, historical literature, maps, time lines, and charts. Thursday, January 10, 4.00 P.M.

READING—7A and 7B—Silent Reading—*Mound Street School*—Teacher, Emma B. Shea. Skills and types of questions with a major objective as to character traits. Friday, January 11, 4.00 P.M.

ENGLISH—7B and 6A—*Fernwood School*—The paragraph idea—Teacher, Gertrude Effertz. Monday, January 14, 4.00 P.M.

GEOGRAPHY—8B and 7A—*Trowbridge Street School*—Norway and Sweden—Teacher, Lillian Kaye. Problem Solving. Aids: Cartographs, maps, and reference material. Tuesday, January 15, 4.00 P.M.

ORGANIZATION IN READING—7A and 7B—*Fernwood School*—Teacher, Madeline Mages. Thursday, January 17, 4.00 P.M.

ENGLISH—6A and 6B—*Mound Street School*—The paragraph idea—Teacher, Cornelia A. Marlewski. Friday, January 18, 4.00 P.M.

READING—4B and 3A—Silent Reading—*Field School*—Teacher, Addie F. Golden. Types of questions. Tuesday, January 22, 4.00 P.M.

READING—8B—*Kagel School*—Audience situation—Teacher, Viola Wynoble. Poems of our day. Thursday, January 24, 4.00 P.M.

This bulletin is rather typical of the demonstration work carried on during each semester for the past ten years.

The primary function of supervision is to interpret the aims of education in the fields of habits, skills, ideals, and attitudes into terms which teachers can understand and which they can in turn transfer into functional activity within the classroom itself. (I might say right here: More and more the tendency is to hold the teacher responsible for the result of 7 x 9 and the principal responsible for the manner in which it is learned.) In this exposition of the aims of education the improvement of methods or technique is to my mind most important. It is not reactionary to recognize that ultimate improvement in a school system must come through improvement in pupil-teacher technique. You may improve buildings, you may improve grounds, you may improve texts, you may improve equipment, but these improvements do not mean much when weighed against an improvement in a thinking situation.

Many have believed and many still believe that, in supervision, if we but tell, or preach, or verbally discuss the ideas or practices which the supervisor so clearly sees and understands, they will become motorized and be put into effect in the schoolroom. This is not true. He who has attempted to do it that way *knows* that it is not true. The ideomotor theory does not work. It can be traced back to the Greeks who mistakenly said, "You will do right if you but know what the right is." All of us know how fallacious that theory is in actual practice.

Teachers must not only be told, they must be shown; and not shown once but repeatedly. Learning by "seeing" is equally as important as learning by "doing." (In many

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learning situations, maybe more so!) In fact "seeing" and "doing" are the essential complementary factors entering into any normal learning process. A demonstration lesson presented by a real practitioner emphasizing the "seeing" factors in learning to teach should be as perfect as possible in method and technique; it should exemplify *artistry*. This artistry of excellent teaching is not "caught"—much less made to function—by one or two observations. There are necessary psychological factors in procedure that must be emphasized and reemphasized to the observers before these factors become "sustained interest" and are visible in the resultant teaching of the observers.

The developing surgeon does not learn by doing alone; neither does the developing teacher learn by doing alone. It is true in whichever sense you take "alone." "The young surgeon sees all the various operations performed by able surgeons. Gradually he is permitted to participate in operations but not until every detail of a performance has been demonstrated by experts."¹ Many a teacher, questioned as to the reason for an indefensible or unwarranted procedure has said "When the difficulty presented itself, I thought of Miss X, one of my former teachers, and I tried to recall how she solved a similar difficulty." Except for such memories you and I too were untrained in teaching technique. This sort of "recall" has been the general practice, more or less, in the not too distant past. These recalls and memories comprise the technique of the young inexperienced teacher in almost every classroom problem. In other words, she "sees" her former teachers in retrospect. She hasn't had much else to look at. This usually places her somewhere between the Stone age and the year 1915. About 1915 there was a distinct awakening to the psychology of learning in the teaching process. The developing teacher undoubtedly needs to "see"

a great many more procedures than the developing surgeon.

Some do not give this method of learning to teach the credit which it deserves. "They say it crushes initiative and originality, that the teacher becomes an imitator. The facts are that most teachers are imitators anyhow and in many cases imitate bad models. There are very few teachers who have the creative ability to plan new and better methods of teaching for themselves."² In order to improve they must "see" excellent teaching technique. It is better to imitate a good teacher than a poor or antiquated one. Learning through imitation is and always has been a genuine and accepted form of gaining knowledge and understanding. A large part of the learning of early childhood is through imitation; a large part of the learning in adult life is through imitation. Real, genuine, projective, creative learning is at the present time comparatively rare. In fact no one has ever questioned the legitimacy of learning by imitation, and it may be said that its full importance has to date not been recognized. *In teaching—with proper supervision, imitators of good method may often become originators and artists providing we can get them to understand the psychology of learning and apply it functionally.* And this is our most specific problem.

In general we may say that a supervisor's work may be measured through his ability to improve individually, the fair, good, and excellent teachers. This requires time, more time than the average supervisor has at his command, in order to achieve a general uplift and an improvement in the whole teaching force. But a more essential measure of his work is his ability to improve the best teachers and through these best teachers collectively to improve the others. In other words, what the best teachers do should be improved and capitalized on. The most effective function that the supervisor can perform is to *see the good*, add thereto, and collectively instigate its dissemination.

¹JULIA M. HARRIS, HERMAN LEE DONOVAN, and THOMAS ALEXANDER, *Supervision and Teaching of Reading* (Richmond, Va.: Johnson Publishing Company, 1927), xxi +474 pages.

²*Ibid.*

Now let us take an actual case in point. Teaching teachers to teach is a teaching process on the part of the principal and assistant superintendent, and a learning process on the part of the teacher. If it is a learning process on the part of the teacher then the "laws of learning" apply to the teacher just as definitely, just as intensely, as they apply to the pupil when taught by the teacher. Let us apply the "law of readiness" to the problem of "teaching teachers to teach."

But, let me state the converse first. A number of principals saw a demonstration lesson. At the close of the lesson they said, "We are going to start this demonstration work in our schools tomorrow." All wrong. No understanding of the "law of readiness." No stimulus established and therefore no response bonds ready to act. What these principals will get is annoyance, if not absolute opposition, on the part of their teachers. Why? Because in most cases the individual teacher's objectives are vague, her procedures are consequently vague, resulting in a lack of confidence bordering on timidity. The procedures and objectives are vague because the teacher is not certain whether objectives and methods are psychologically sound. She often says to herself "I wonder if I'm doing this thing right." By "right" she means whether or not the procedure will stand critical analysis as to its being psychologically and pedagogically sound. In other words, "Is it according to Hoyle?" Confidence on a psychological Thorndike learning basis must first be established.

Then there is an emotional element that must be overcome, due mainly on the part of the teacher to a lack of knowledge of the "psychology of learning." Suppose you as a principal or supervisory official see a splendid piece of work in some particular phase. Suppose, after discussion and suggestion, you say to the teacher, "That was a splendid piece of work, I'd like to have an assistant superintendent see it." The first usual response is one of hesitancy, if not actual

fright, at the prospect. You perhaps respond, "Well, that is too bad; this work is so meritorious that it is worth while to capitalize on!" The teacher says, "No, I just couldn't do it." You say, "All right, that's just too bad" and let her sleep on it. I'll warrant that she'll come back in a few days and say, "I've been thinking about it and I think I can do it." (In all of my experience I have had but two good teachers who did not act on my suggestion, and they have since learned by observation, and contacting other observers.) The supervisor then offers to teach a lesson for the teacher. She is elated about that. The lesson is discussed, taught, and discussed again. She is now in a receptive mood for a detailed discussion of a similar but new lesson which she is planning to give. With the "law of readiness" in the fore the elemental phases of the lesson in regard to the proper building of a background and motivation help to throw response and responsibility onto the pupils. The maintenance of interest, relationship of teacher to the pupils, of pupils to the teacher, and of pupils to each other are discussed. The formulation of types of questions, the making of judgments and decisions on the part of the pupils, the elimination of unessentials and the selection of essentials are thoroughly gone over. The psychological differences on the pupil being questioned as to fact or judgment by another pupil—his equal—in comparison to being questioned by the superior teacher are weighed and evaluated.

Now the teachers are ready to be called in to see the new lesson under actual conditions of the classroom. Before they go in actually to observe they are asked to go over the subject matter of the lesson; if it is an arithmetic lesson they will know the facts to be learned, if it is a reading lesson they will be given time to go over it. So with history, geography, and the rest.

Standards for judging should be presented. One of the important phases of the lesson to be observed is how the "law of

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readiness" is made to function; how a background is built up. Then, how interest is to be sustained; whether the children are active and enthusiastic rather than the teacher; what kind of relationship between teacher and pupil and between pupils themselves is educed; which of the important skills are manifest as a result of teacher or pupil questioning or direction. In other words, the evaluation of the lesson should be directed to definite important psychological principles. Otherwise the discussion later becomes more or less a scattered promiscuous hit-and-miss proposition. In addition, lesson outlines and plans are mimeographed and furnished to the observers long enough in advance to afford an opportunity for careful study and discussion of the plans.

The lesson is held. The observers may or may not take notes. The lesson is again followed by a conference. If the evaluation always results entirely in fulsome compliments, all of the observers know that the lesson has not been properly evaluated. In fact all of them sense professional insincerity. The good should be lifted high; the bad and indifferent should be judiciously brought out in analysis in such a way as not to destroy the teacher's self-confidence. Proper evaluation through discussion in the conference after the lesson is probably the most important and profitable type of training teachers in service. Judiciously again the discussion should be led into a presentation of standards for determining the worth of the lesson so that teachers and supervisors can get on to common ground. For instance:

1. Did the "law of readiness" function? How?
2. How was the background built up?
3. What was the objective of the lesson?
4. Was there a motive on the part of the children? (Evaluate pupil motive in comparison with teacher motive.)
5. How did the teacher produce it? (If you can answer that in every case you are an analytical teacher on the road to superiority.)
6. How was interest sustained throughout the lesson?
7. Was there provision for individual differences? How was it brought about?

8. What types of questions did you observe? Which skills did they tend to develop?
9. Did the pupils learn relative values by bringing out relationships through free discussion? Discussion with each other?
10. Who was more enthusiastic, the teacher or the pupils? Why?
11. Was there evidence of the "law of exercise"? How was it revealed?
12. Was opportunity provided for application? (Was it particularly brought out or was it inferential?)
13. Was the teacher conscious of the "law of effect" or "sustained interest"—interest beyond the confines of the lesson?
14. How would you describe the attitude on the part of the children? How do you account for the attitude shown?

It would be impossible to try to discuss all of these points fully during one conference after the lesson. Those that are most germane to the type of lesson presented should be selected.

One of the problems in the evaluation meeting is to get the observers into free and easy discussion. The discussion should not smack of parliamentary formality. It should be thoroughly and freely socialized. Voluntary discussion of the psychological factors presented should be encouraged. Here is a splendid opportunity for engendering a give-and-take attitude in the teaching force. The observers soon learn that the sharp thrust of an adverse criticism is made less pointed when put in the form of a question. The assistant superintendent's function is primarily to keep the discussion from wandering and becoming more or less aimless by holding it to the standards for judging already set up. Then comes the assistant superintendent's informal follow-up in the respective classrooms of those who observed the lesson. This again is one of the most important phases of teacher training.

In this growing and constructive side of the work the teacher must constantly be made to use her background of educational psychology. It must be recalled to her attention. She must be shown how it is made to function. She must see its value in ultimate improvement in "thinking." Educational

vision and the understanding of the term "learning the child" is based upon a *consciousness of the factors entering into any learning process*. If you want to "learn the child" you must understand how he learns. The consciousness and study of this educational psychology makes the difference between a superior and just an average teacher.

The distinctive value of the demonstration lesson to the observers is that theory and practice become more closely related because principles of Thorndike's "laws of learning" are visualized in function. We might say that the demonstration lesson permits the observer to see more clearly—in function—pedagogical principles which have been hazy, indefinite, and indistinct in previous teacher-pupil relationships.

The demonstration lesson is of inestimable value to the observers, but the one who profits most is the teacher of that lesson. Being made conscious of the psychological

factors underlying the learning process assuredly lifts the demonstration teacher to a higher plane. In my experience in this type of work I can say that he or she who has once performed artistically has asked herself numerous times, "Am I doing this thing right?" She has been able to answer her own question on a sound, psychologically defensible, learning basis. She never drops back to mediocrity.

The transfer of individual interests into group interests—the interests in understanding the psychology of learning and applying this psychology functionally is the fundamental function of the demonstration lesson.

The value of the demonstration lesson, an important part of Milwaukee machinery for training in service, is reflected in the steadily increasing attendance and the demand for more demonstrations, and the general consciousness, in the rank and file, of what good teaching really means.

Why Ratify the Child-Labor Amendment?

Muriel Fox

The child-labor amendment would be a fitting subject for extensive treatment in a special issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE. Our present publication schedule makes this impossible, but there is space for one vigorous article presenting some of the points most schoolmen accept in favor of the ratification of the amendment. The author is a member of the staff of the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

WITH THE meeting of several legislatures and their consideration of the ratification of the child-labor amendment imminent, the question once more assumes the center of the stage as a leading controversial issue in the American scene. It is curious that a matter on which there is such general private agreement should become a public controversy at all. For after all, none of us favors labor for the boys and girls we know: most of us would bitterly oppose employment for any of these children under fourteen; we would severely circumscribe the labor of fourteen- and fifteen-year olds; and none of us would advocate dangerous occupations for the youngsters below eighteen that we know. If most of us feel this way about the children we know, why is there a child-labor question? Why doesn't our representative government translate this generalized attitude into Federal legislation?

As a matter of fact the Federal Government has for more than twenty years been trying to protect the child worker. As early as 1907 Senator Beveridge made a three-day speech appealing for protection for the child laborers. The National Child Labor Committee had already been organized by this time, having received the impetus for its establishment from the publication of the 1900 census figures which showed that more than a million and a quarter children were employed. Despite the efforts of this committee to cut down child labor through State laws, the 1910 reports showed an increase in the number of child workers to 1,990,225.

Clearly, work through the mechanism of the various State legislatures brought slow progress, and Federal legislation began to be considered. But despite the eloquence of Senator Beveridge and the efforts of the Child Labor Committee it was not until 1916 that the first Federal Child Labor Act was passed. On the basis of the Interstate Commerce Act this piece of legislation prohibited the shipment in interstate commerce of goods produced in mines and quarries in which children under sixteen years of age were employed, or in mills, canneries, workshops, factories, or manufacturing establishments in which children under fourteen were employed, or in which children fourteen to sixteen years of age worked more than eight hours a day or six days a week, or between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. A pretty mild sort of bill on the face of it, yet in June 1918, nine months after the law went into effect, it was declared unconstitutional by a 5 to 4 decision of the Supreme Court.

The minority and majority reports throw some light on the controversy. According to the Court the act "not only transcends the authority delegated to Congress over commerce but also exerts a power as to a purely local matter to which the Federal Authority does not extend." The dissenting Mr. Justice Holmes declared, however, that "the act does not meddle with anything belonging to the States," adding that "if there is any matter upon which civilized countries have agreed—far more unanimously than they have with regard to intoxicants and some other matters over which this country is now

emotionally aroused—it is the evil of premature and excessive child labor.”

In 1919 there was a second attempt to get Federal regulation of child labor, this time by the imposition of a 10 per cent tax upon the profits of all mines and manufacturing concerns which did not substantiate the standards of the 1916 act. This act too was declared unconstitutional by an 8 to 1 decision in 1922 which held that it was a tax law in form but regulatory in purpose.

These laws, before they were declared unconstitutional, had given protection to hundreds of thousands of children not reached by State legislation. In view of the decisions of the Supreme Court and in response to the widespread demand for continued regulation, an amendment to the Constitution was drafted giving Congress the power to legislate on the subject. The amendment, recommended by Harding and supported by Coolidge, was passed in 1924 with the endorsement of all parties. As soon as it was given to the States for ratification four States ratified; but up to 1933 only six States had ratified. With the depression and the industrial codes there was a revival of interest in the measure and eighteen States ratified in 1933 to 1935. Thirty-six States must ratify the amendment before it becomes part of the Constitution.

Since sustained Federal regulation of child labor has been thus far impossible to achieve, those desirous of having child labor controlled had to have recourse to the various State legislatures for State control. If a survey of the regulations brought about by the individual States proves they have been able to manage the situation satisfactorily, no further discussion of the amendment and Federal legislation will be necessary.

The first indisputable fact that draws our attention is that we still have child labor despite one hundred years of effort to regulate it through State laws. According to the 1930 census reports, 667,118 boys and girls from ten to fifteen years of age are gainfully employed. Techniques of production have

been so far advanced that, according to the estimate of President Roosevelt on September 11, if production were to be resumed at the 1929 level, only 80 per cent of the manpower used in 1929 would be required. Thus at a high level of production we cannot employ all our adult workers. Why, then, when large numbers of men and women are unemployed, are hundreds of thousands of children working? In 1935 industry was reviving and should have absorbed some of the millions unemployed during the depression; yet in the same year there was an increase in the amount of child labor, a further obstacle to the reduction of unemployment.

This same principle operates within the ranks of the child workers: the younger displace the older. In New York, permits for full-time work are granted only when fourteen-, fifteen-, and sixteen-year-old children have a definite promise of employment from their prospective employer. In the last four months of 1935, while fewer permits were granted to sixteen-year olds than the year before, the number granted to fourteen- and fifteen-year-olds increased by more than three thousand. In North Carolina during the first eight months of the year the number of work permits issued increased 46 per cent over the number issued in 1934. Children of twelve to fifteen were found working in the family silk mills of Paterson, New Jersey, during the summer of 1935. Why with great unemployment in 1930 was there so much child labor? Why, with unemployment still a major problem, and only a short time after the expiration of the sixteen-year minimum set forth in the NRA codes, is there such a rapid return of child labor in the last year?

The answer is simple. Child labor is cheap labor. When a child is given a job in preference to an adult it is because the child will work for less. Not only is child labor a social evil in that it forces children to labor before reaching physical maturity and at the expense of their education, but the low paid employment of children adds to the terrible social and economic burden of adult unem-

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ployment. Its consequences by no means stop there. For the presence of poorly paid children in the labor market tends to force down the wages of the men and women who are employed, decreasing the purchasing power of the wage-earning group and threatening the American standard of living.

It is curious with what horror we can read the descriptions of the conditions of child labor in nineteenth-century England, while we remain peaceful in the conviction that such things are past. We read, for example, in the *Hammonds* that "it happened not infrequently that a small child, as he dozed, tumbled into the machine beside him to be mangled for life," but our horror fades before the comfortable concept of progress. And to some extent we are justified; for no longer do six-year-olds, working sixteen to eighteen hours a day, doze at their work and fall into machines. But it is hardly less horrible to read in the *Miami Herald* on November 24, 1935:

Boy Proves Spartan While Being Rescued

His right hand crushed between spike-studded rollers, Neil Grant, 11, stood for 20 minutes without making a cry while firemen, summoned from Central station, dismantled part of the machine to release him.

Neil suffered the injury as he and another lad were feeding paper into a machine used for preparing cotton for stuffing mattresses. He was taken to the Good Samaritan Hospital, his hand lacerated and some of its bones crushed.

It is estimated that 50,000 boys and girls under eighteen are injured in industrial accidents in a normal year. And there are still eleven States which have practically no prohibition of hazardous work even for children under sixteen.

Clearly State legislation has failed to eliminate the evils of child labor. Only seven States have a sixteen-year age minimum for work during school hours, a standard to which industry adjusted during the two years in which the codes were operative. Nine States through various exemptions still permit children *under fourteen* to work in industry. In seven States children between

the ages of fourteen to sixteen are permitted to work nine to eleven hours a day. And in thirty-three States there is almost no regulation of the employment of boys and girls of sixteen and seventeen in hazardous occupations. Many States eliminate much child labor by educational requirements—such as compulsory school attendance up to sixteen years—but five States allow children to leave school for work at fourteen without requiring the completion of any special grade. On this point Arthur V. Lashly in an article on juvenile delinquents in the March 1934 issue of *THE CLEARING HOUSE* says, "The critical time in the life of a young person is from fourteen to eighteen, and as to a majority of them at these ages there is no legal way to force them to go to school." In other respects State laws are equally lax. Only twenty-seven States, for example, require a medical examination before granting work permits to children.

Hardly a pretty picture. And yet the difficult situation facing the States is easily understood. Very often the fear of forcing their industries to compete with low standard States makes a State unwilling to adopt child-labor provisions. Take for example the textile industry. In 1930 this industry was employing 20,000 children fifteen years and under, and this number, large as it was, represented a decrease of 59 per cent for the country as a whole compared with 1920. But in two important textile States—South Carolina and Georgia—there was a 20 per cent *increase* over these ten years in the number of children employed in the textile industry. And in these States children are permitted to work as much as ten hours a day, six days a week. Conditions such as these caused Governor Ely to say that unless labor standards for women and children in the southern States were raised, Massachusetts would be forced to lower its standards to meet competition.

The extent to which this competition is carried can be roughly estimated when we consider that the median average weekly

earnings of fourteen- and fifteen-year-old children in Pennsylvania shirt factories for a full week's work was \$2.76 early in 1933.

Some States have very low standards of child labor, some have comparatively high standards. Enforcement of the State laws which do exist varies from State to State. Exemptions abound in some States. All efforts to the contrary, State legislation on child labor remains patchy and spotty.

In sharp contrast to the failure of State legislation is the success of Federal control when it has been tried. The first Federal Child Labor Law was in force nine months, and the second lasted three years before the Supreme Court declared it unconstitutional. The effectiveness of these laws can immediately be discerned by a glance at the figures for child labor after the acts were voided. There was a prompt increase after the removal of the first Federal law; and the figures already referred to show the increased employment of children in textile mills in South Carolina and Georgia from 1920 to 1930, when no Federal regulation of child labor was in force.

Several facts stand out of this experiment at Federal control proving its efficacy and simplicity. Both Federal laws were enforced with the close coöperation of the State departments of labor, and officials of these State departments reported that compliance with child-labor laws was more easily secured when there was Federal regulation. Both laws were cheap to administer: (1) the average cost for the entire country was less than \$125,000 a year; (2) the personnel of the child-labor law division in both cases numbered 51. This is hardly an exorbitant price for the regulation of child labor.

A recent example of the success of child-labor regulation by the Federal Government is the experience under the codes. However divergent opinions may be regarding the NRA, the child-labor provisions were unanimously upheld. And these particular provisions were well observed by employers. According to a survey in 1934 made by the

Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry of the cotton-garment industry under the NRA, "Only two children under sixteen years of age were found at work out of 12,000 employees; and this is an industry where one worker in every twenty-five was under sixteen years of age in 1932."

The need for Federal legislation is evident. The question may then arise as to whether the present amendment is properly drafted to bring about the desired legislation. The drafting ought to be well done for some of the best legal talent in the country assisted. The original draft was prepared by a lay committee representing twenty national organizations and this committee consulted such notable constitutional lawyers as Roscoe Pound, dean of Harvard Law School, Newton D. Baker, Professor Ernst Freund of the University of Chicago Law School, and Professor Chamberlain of Columbia Law School. After many conferences between these lawyer advisers and the lawyer members of the Senate Judiciary Committee, the wording of the amendment was finally agreed upon.

The wording was again deliberated when the measure was before Congress. Twenty-three changes were proposed in Congress. It is noteworthy that most of the changes were suggested by Congressmen from the southern States where child-labor regulation is most lax. None of the suggestions was accepted and the amendment in its present wording was passed by large majorities in both Houses.

Every word of the amendment was considered at length. The phrase, "persons under eighteen years of age" was preferred to the general term "children" because of the divergent interpretations of the latter term in the different States. The eighteen-year limitation was used rather than the sixteen because this would permit Congress to regulate the labor of older boys and girls in hazardous occupations. The large number of industrial accidents in this age group which makes such legislation imperative has al-

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ready been discussed. The NRA codes also recognized this principle and while they set sixteen as the general minimum age, with light employment permitted in some occupations outside of school hours at fourteen, most of them also specified eighteen for dangerous occupations.

"Labor" was used in preference to "employment" because of the well-known evasions which various constructions of the latter term permit. Frequently, when work is on a piece-work or family basis, as in the beet fields and in canneries, the employer technically does not "employ" the children, although the inclusiveness of the contract with the parent is customarily based on the number of children in the family who will do the work, and the payment covers the product of their labor.

This amendment to protect the children of the United States has the support of large numbers of our leading citizens. Unfortunately it has also a highly articulate opposition. The National Association of Manufacturers and the Southern Textile Bulletin, the latter being the organ of the southern textile interests, claim the "credit" for blocking the amendment when it first came before the States in 1924 and 1925. These groups, with the aid of the Sentinels of the Republic (organized by a shoe-machinery manufacturer) sent a flood of propaganda throughout the country minimizing the extent of the child-labor evil and misrepresenting the amendment. Despite the many individual manufacturers and businessmen who have supported the amendment, various manufacturing and business groups have aided in the opposition. Many newspapers, anxious to keep night hours for newsboys no matter how young, have also attacked the amendment. *Editor and Publisher*, trade journal of the newspapers, has pointed out how misdirected this newspaper opposition is, for "it is not to be rationally believed that Congress could ever make an eighteen-year rule apply to news-carriers."

The opposition has offered varying criti-

cisms. The amendment has been called "radical" despite the background of its drafting and passage through Congress. Cries have been heard that it will nationalize children just as sixteen years ago the Women Suffrage Amendment was supposed to result in the "nationalization of women." The argument that the Amendment would permit Congress to control education has led many Roman Catholics and Lutherans to oppose it. There is no legal basis for this argument, or for the charge that the Amendment would prevent children from helping their parents at home or on the home farm. The Amendment gives Congress the power to regulate only the "labor" of children, and "labor" has frequently been construed by the courts to mean "labor for hire"; never has it been construed to include education; never has it been interpreted to mean the work done at home by children for their parents. It is also charged that with such a broad grant of power, Congress would enact laws prohibiting all employment for persons under eighteen. This is far-fetched and most unreasonable. Surely Congress has as broad a grant of power when it can declare war, but it is not constantly abusing that power.

Some opposition is based on the notion that the Amendment violates the spirit of the Constitution, that if it was in line with Constitutional principles it would have been included originally. This theory ignores the fact that not a single cotton mill was operating in this country at the time of the drafting of the Constitution, and that it was largely the machine that brought about the wholesale exploitation of children.

These arguments do not hold water; yet the obvious hope of their authors is to block the proceedings by any argument whatever, and thus far they have succeeded in preventing ratification by the required number of States. But it cannot take long for our legislators to recognize that the continued exploitation of the labor of children when millions of adults are unemployed is a travesty on sane government.

Controlling Tardiness

Dan R. Kovar

The principal of the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School in Uniontown, Pennsylvania, is a vigorous young man whose efficiency as an administrator might be explained in part by his knowledge of adolescent psychology—not the textbook brand, but the applied, pragmatic, “natural” understanding of what makes things move in a junior high school. Here is his latest solution of a problem that has to be solved over and over in every school.

OUR SCHOOL is located on the top of a hill, at the southwestern extremity of the city. Pupils living within the city come from a radius of a mile and a half. We have a current enrollment of 618 pupils, and the majority of these, with the exception of some 135 out-of-town students, walk to school. During the school year 1933-1934, there had been an epidemic of tardiness; 1,840 tardy marks were recorded for a student body of 553. Something had to be done about it. A study of the situation revealed that out-of-town students were not counted tardy if the bus was late, so that the majority of the offenders were our own city dwellers. Furthermore, the records showed that the average student had been tardy not more than three minutes.

The majority of the tardies occurred in the mornings, and the stock excuse was: “I slept in.” The most novel excuse which was offered was by a lad in the eighth grade. He arrived one morning, puffing, just as the classes were moving to their first periods. The colloque which ensued was as follows:

“Why are you late, son?”

“My mother didn’t waken me in time.”

“Don’t you have an alarm clock?”

“Yes, sir.”

“Why don’t you use it?”

“Well, we didn’t have it yesterday or today.”

“Did some one borrow it?”

“No, it’s like this. You see, we are moving into another house, and yesterday afternoon, mother took some of the things into the new house, and the alarm clock was one of them.

That’s why we didn’t have the alarm clock.” Needless to say, that excuse was marked *Excused Tardy*.

The tardies for the afternoon sessions did not present a serious problem, because well over fifty per cent of our student body eats in the school; either the pupils carry their own lunches, or they eat in the school cafeteria. But some of the pupils living farthest away from school insisted on going home for lunch. Invariably, they came to school three to five minutes after the tardy bell had rung. In an effort to eliminate the tardies at noon, all of the pupils living far away were called together, and the problem was discussed with them. The upshot of it was that quite a number decided that they would carry their lunches. Those who felt they should go home at noon were given late permits; that is, they were given a ten-minute extension for lunch. This readily solved the problem of tardies at noon, but we still had the morning tardies with which to contend.

The first step was to require all tardy pupils to report directly to the principal. Heretofore, the secretary had checked off the names of the tardies and had given them admittance slips to classes. Under the new system, the pupil came into the principal’s office, where a record of his tardiness was entered on a master sheet kept from session to session. The pupil was then given a form on which was entered the number of minutes tardy, the number of tardies of the term to date, and the reason for the tardy. The pupil was asked to take the slip home, have it

signed by a parent, and return it to the principal at the next session. The principal indicated the action taken: *Excused* or *Unexcused*. The homeroom teacher was then asked to countersign the slip and enter the tardy in the State register. Finally the slip was returned to the principal's office, where it was checked against the master list, and then filed for reference. If the tardy was excused, no action was taken; if it was unexcused, the pupil was assigned to report the following morning at eight o'clock. If the pupil lived far away, a detention after school was substituted.

The routine may sound complicated, but it worked. Many pupils decided that it was easier to come on time than to have to go through the office.

So much for office routine. Early reports and detentions may have had good effects, but all of this was followed up with remedial work through the homeroom organization. During two successive homeroom meetings, pupils discussed the desirability of punctuality as a part of good citizenship. Some of homerooms challenged other rooms to a contest to see which could attain the best record.

At the next meeting of the student council, the question was brought up. The council decided to conduct a school-wide campaign. This was instituted during the month of December. As a preparation for the campaign, the council had cards printed:

THIS ROOM
IS 100%
ON TIME

Every room received one of these cards at the beginning of the month. The card was retained so long as no member of the room was tardy. One of the rules of the contest was that the first person tardy had to bring the card to the principal. No one wanted the privilege.

For the second month of the campaign, the council decided to utilize door plates. These read as follows:

NO TARDIES
IN THIS
ROOM
LAST MONTH

These door plates were designed and made in the art department. The letters were cut out; black cardboard was used as a base. All doors have nine small panes of glass, and the plates were made to fit one of the panes. Any person going past a homeroom could tell whether or not there had been any tardies in the room during the previous month. This increased the spirit of rivalry, and caused homerooms as groups to strive all the harder for punctuality. The *ON TIME* cards were given to each homeroom at the beginning of the month; the door plates were given only to those rooms which had retained their *ON TIME* cards for the previous month.

With the beginning of school this fall, the student council voted to continue the campaign. To ensure sustained interest, cards of different colors were printed. These cards are changed monthly, so that pupils will not become accustomed to one card, and thus forget its significance. In addition, this year the council awarded a new card at the end of the third school month. The cards, printed in school colors, read:

NO TARDIES
IN THIS ROOM
THIS YEAR

All rooms having perfect records at the close of the third month received these cards. At present, at the close of the fifth month, ten out of seventeen homerooms have retained these cards.

In addition to giving individual homerooms cards, indicating punctuality, all rooms having no tardies were given recognition in the first assembly of each month. This served to call our campaign to the attention of patrons who visited our assemblies. Not only did the pupils enter wholeheartedly into the campaign, but so did the teachers. One teacher who had no homeroom was assigned to cruise up and down

the hill in bad weather, to get the students in. This not only saved many youngsters from being drenched in wet weather, but also served to emphasize that the school was coöperating with the pupils.

That the campaign has achieved its goal is unquestioned. We are now in the second year, and tardies have almost ceased. The accompanying chart reveals the strides we have made:

some youngsters refused to come to school if they thought that they were going to be late. These folks had to be reasoned with, and shown that it was just as important to be present as to be on time.

We still have tardies, of course, but tardiness is no longer a problem. Punctuality is looked upon as being desirable, and the entire student body coöperates. The office no longer has to contend with latecomers en

TABLE I. *Tardies per Month*

Year	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Total
1933-34	68	133	186	140	254	206	313	290	247	1,840
1934-35	17	33	24	9	8	18	2	7	2	120
1935-36	2	2	2	5	5					

True, the system has its disadvantages. Early in the campaign we discovered, through reports of the home visitor, that

masse. The pupils have solved the difficulty. With the elimination of frequent tardies, our attendance record has likewise improved.

TABLE II. *Total Tardiness-September to January*

Year	Tardiness	Net Enrollment
1933-34	784	553
1934-35	91	613
1935-36	16	618

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Editorials

GOING BACK TO FIND THE SIGNPOSTS

When two big motor manufacturers decided to offer the public a high-class musical hour the same time, the same evening, Sunday, on the air, immediately rated high. People soon found that when movies were crowded, amusements exorbitant, traffic irksome, they could settle back comfortably at home with good entertainment. While countless thousands enjoy this type of program, there is yet another group, seriously bent on study, earnestly seeking guidance in things scientific, not only for their educational and vocational background but also as a satisfaction of their leisure interests.

Not all in the listening audience want advertising, music, gags, drama, sports. That's why magazines and newspapers come out in such varied forms. There are all types of consumers.

Radio needs organization. It has all come along the new road so terrifically fast that it has just galloped by some very important guideposts. It seems to be confused in the process now of going back to find out the necessary signals for a safe journey ahead. The publishers have gone through a similar experience. The solution for them has been an intensive study of the tastes of the reading public, and then a systematic catering to those desires.

Motion-picture producers are in a state somewhat in advance of radio. Their merchandise, quite ignoring diversified public discriminations, became unbelievably poor until box-office receipts tolled a mournful story. The industry is on the rebound, however, and is actually giving the public credit for a somewhat better appreciative level than it at first guessed.

Radio will, no doubt, follow in somewhat parallel steps, though it is unfortunate that the public has to wait so long and that the lessons of predecessors have been so complacently ignored.

To serve well its marvelous role, radio can systematically divide itself into many bands or strips to which the consuming audience may turn as it wills. A strip will be reserved for commercials and all that goes with it, for the arts, the sciences, the hobbies, for education.

Twenty-five or thirty million youngsters living, working, and playing in publicly financed properties known as schools represent quite an active slice of a nation of 120,000,000. What youngsters do, how they do it, can be made a matter of great interest and import to certain broad groups of listening America, particularly parents. The profession should be organizing to meet the day when radio will have reserved for it a definite zone.

Some pioneering in the field of pupil broadcasting is occurring about the country. A few communities are training youngsters and adult educators to work up dramatic, vivid, truthful, lifelike material about the greatest single activity in the country—that of public schooling. John Public can and will listen to those programs, if by sheer merit they become sufficiently compelling.

Teachers and young America, assemble your absorbing experiences. When the day comes, you want to be able to carry the ball without a fumble.

R. V. B.

The Academic Stereotype

For the twelfth of the Inglis Lectures in Secondary Education John L. Tildsley spoke on "The Mounting Waste of the American Secondary School." His address was marked by the forthrightness and vigor which are characteristic of the man.

Tildsley's main complaints are that a fourth of the pupils who are advanced through elementary school are unfitted by nature, achievement, and desire for success in the academic "upper" school and that their presence there prevents the school

from maintaining standards which serve to make the more able pupils extend themselves. This comes, he says, of the fallacious conception that the high school must accept and provide for all adolescent boys and girls. He states the issue clearly; he neither dodges nor compromises. The academic high school, he implies, is becoming bankrupt.

His positive recommendations for remedying the sorry state of the high school includes ten steps:

1. A maximum compulsory school age of sixteen
2. Segregation in the elementary schools of the scholastically capable from the scholastically incapable
3. Only the former to be directed into high school
4. Further segregation of the superior 15 to 20 per cent of high-school pupils to special schools for bright pupils
5. The framing of unified curricula in high school with free election largely abolished, and a diploma based on attainment of definite standards
6. The abolition of professional preparation of high-school teachers
7. The elimination, at the time of selection of teachers, of candidates whose personality traits, cultures, and characters unfit them for the service of youth
8. Doing away with large high-school buildings and large organizations
9. "A return to the old idea and the resulting practices that mastery of even one field is more educative than a slight acquaintance with many"
10. The building up of work habits, pleasure in productive work, and the urge for ever better accomplishment as realizable ends for secondary education

All intelligent persons will approve change 7; and many will greet change 8 with enthusiasm. With the rest of Tildsley's remedies those persons will sympathize who themselves think of the high school as an institution separate from the elementary school and selective in function, and who like Tildsley are bound by the academic stereotype. To those readers who are not afflicted with or blessed by such convenient and narrow concepts, stereotypes, and memories, however, the lecture will be interesting—stimulating perhaps—but not considered to be seriously challenging to the

present program of secondary education in America.

Dr. Tildsley reflects the parochial point of view of a New Yorker. Public secondary education was very late in developing there. Morris High School, in which he taught after 1898, was one of the earliest to be opened. These early high schools of New York were not integral parts of the public school system. Indeed, even today in New York City, the term "public school" is applied only to the elementary school.

The separation of these belated high schools from the elementary schools was given more nearly permanent status by the New York State Regents examination system. An elementary-school Regents certificate was required for admittance to the high school. Progress through the high schools depended on passing Regents examinations. These high schools were attended by very few pupils in comparison with the numbers in elementary school. Indeed, it was not until after the World War that the continuance of pupils in high school after completing elementary school became the normal and expected procedure in New York.

To persons outside New York City and especially outside New York State, it is frequently not appreciated that the conception of secondary education of New York State was until the 1920's almost unique among American States and cities. Public tax-supported high schools had been mandatory in Massachusetts since 1827, and, as a result of imitation, high schools had been established throughout New England and the Middle West by 1850. These were given legal authorization in Michigan in 1874 when Chief Justice Cooley declared that the high school was a part of the *common school* system and hence could be supported by common school taxes. This decision served as a precedent not only in the middle and far western States but also in the South and East. Thus the New Jersey State Constitution provides for a public elementary school

of twelve grades, and the State laws provide that any pupil may attend school until he completes the twelfth grade or until he is twenty years of age; he may be excluded only for gross immorality or defiance of authority. Similar right to attend school so long as the pupil is a minor is granted in almost all States except New York.

During the years of the establishment of public, tax-supported, tuition-free high schools, the major support for legislation came from labor unions. Until the present day the trade and labor councils of States and cities have loyally and vigorously promoted measures that ensured support to the expanding high school. They naturally refuse to accept the academic "cultural" aristocratic interpretation of secondary education by which their children are excluded from the schools which they have caused to be provided. Dr. Tildsley dismisses the trade unions' demands for continued educational opportunity for their children in public high schools as "selfish." Perhaps so; but the trade unions have every right to be heard. The mere fact that the eruditionists captured the schools that the unions provided does not justify the former in calling the latter names.

The academic stereotype which implies that pupils work and grow only when they study foreign languages, mathematics, science, history, literature, but that they are not working and growing when they practice the B-flat baritone horn, or printing, or direct traffic, or publish the school paper, or prepare for debate, or engage in shop or art activities is fundamental to Tildsley's argument. As a matter of fact these traditional eruditions not only are not superior to accomplishments in social-civic relationships, in creation and appreciation of the arts, in practices involved in individual and community health and improved homes and wholesome avocations; as erudition they are, in fact, of little universal importance. As harmless leisure-time pursuits they are ap-
provable, but they remain evidences of the

conspicuous waste, relics of the renaissance leisure class. They surely are neither sacrosanct nor adequate criteria for judging the fitness of pupils to remain in school.

When the values of literary education are examined in true perspective they are seen to be largely vested interests of the kind of teachers with whom Tildsley found himself associated at Morris High School in 1898—cloistered people who had remained in liberal-arts colleges for eight or ten or more years without soiling their hands by contact with a world of reality. Nobody denies that such men and women have much to give youths. In selecting as "superior" pupils the same scholastic, docile, unquestioning, rule-abiding youths as they themselves were in their school days, however, they make themselves somewhat superfluous. Their great value is their influence on the nonscholastic, independent, challenging youths who need to be helped to recognize the worth of—or at least to be tolerant toward—erudition.

Ability to read and abstract "general" verbal intelligence are not all-important instruments for continuing education. They bear little relation to social-civic behaviors and leadership, to appreciation and expression in the arts, to home membership, health, nonverbal vocations, and ethical character.

Selection is itself no part of the function of a democratic common school—elementary or high. Distribution of youths and wide opportunities for fruitful experiences under guidance and leadership of diverse worthy adults—eruditionists, artists, mechanics, athletic coaches, homemakers, and civic leaders—these are the functions that must characterize democracy's school. Whatever helps any pupil to grow in those knowledges, interests, ideals, habits, and powers that are involved in health, home membership, vocational choices and adaptations, citizenship, worthy uses of leisure, and ethical character—that is the curriculum for such a pupil. If he responds to academic

subject study, so be it. But such a response makes him neither better nor worse than the pupil to whom mathematics and grammar and science experiments are mere hocus-pocus, but who enters eagerly into some other valuable phases of school life.

We are grateful for Dr. Tildsley's challenge even though we disagree with almost

every conclusion he reaches. We prefer, however, the Tildsley who prepared the Report of 1933: *Ten Year's Progress Toward Making the High Schools of the City of New York John Jones- and Mary Jones-Centered Schools*. We prefer to think that the latter is the true John L. Tildsley.

P. W. L. C.

Material Review

INITIATION TO THE OLDEST MYSTERIES

When our grandparents, a good many generations removed, came down out of the trees and took up their abode in caves in the rocks the occasion was ripe for some important discoveries. We have yet to build a suitable monument to the first experimenters who applied human intelligence to the work of discovering the peculiar qualities and special uses of the rocks and minerals that made up such a large part of their intimate environment. How many generations passed before good fortune and mother wit and the natural quality of the mineral coincided to permit the shaping of some useful article of iron? It was a day to celebrate, that day when the cavemen gave their old stone weapons to the children and went out carrying their new spears and arrows tipped with iron.

If I were writing thirty years ago, this would be the place to announce that every child in the natural course of his development feels an instinctive curiosity about rocks and minerals, a curiosity that survives in him as his inheritance from generations of primitive ancestors preoccupied with the characteristics of acres of stones and mountains of rock. Without asserting or denying any certain cause for it, we can allow that mineral specimens, presented in such a collection as the Porter Chemical Company labels *Mineralogy Outfit No. 505*, have an almost universal interest for youngsters, boys especially, of high-school age.

Every boy in school who shops the toy stores or reads the boys' magazines or the popular science magazines is up on the recent development which capitalizes the glamor of Science (with a capital S) by bringing telescopes and microscopes and test tubes and such over into the field of play. A lot of research and hard thinking has gone into making up the Science Craft sets. This one lists at \$5. There are others from 1\$ up to \$10. The Porter Company also has open stock on about a hundred specimens, ranging in price from five

to fifty cents depending on the size and substance of the specimen.

The No. 505 outfit is a collection of forty minerals, each numbered for identification according to a list on the inside of the wooden cabinet in which the specimens are arranged. The cabinet contains some chemicals and simple apparatus—test tube, blow-pipe, tweezers, etc.—for making certain tests of these and other mineral specimens. There is a notebook in which the experimenter may record his observations, and there is a mineralogy manual, prepared by Francis Burt Rosevear, which provides an interesting and authentic initiation into the mysteries of the most ancient and honorable science.

Such a set as this has value for a youth in proportion to the degree in which he possesses certain serious purposes. The experiments it provides might take him a long way toward a permanent interest of vocational significance, or it might be no more important than a collection of spools. The chapter in the manual that deals with the subject of "making your own collection" is a clue to one of the significant possibilities of this set—there is a definite follow-up value to play of this kind. Mineralogy is slighted or omitted entirely in most of our science curricula, so a set of this kind might be a useful supplement to the equipment for general science. We are learning, much from the toy store!

J. C. D.

POSTSCRIPT ON THE DICTAPHONE

Last month in this department we presented the results of some experiments in adapting the Dictaphone machines to educational uses. We saved for this month's review the report on the Dictaphone's performance when harnessed to a radio receiver.

Using a radio set that gives full, well-rounded quality we placed the Dictaphone recorder near it and adjusted the mouthpiece directly in front of the center of the loud-speaker. The volume was

turned up to somewhere just short of the place where sounds are distorted. The Dictaphone records everything it hears, but it does not hear the whole range of sound. It is quite sensitive to the middle range, but the high notes and the lower ones it cannot register without grotesque distortion. The result is that you cannot make a Dictaphone record of Whiteman or Toscanini, but you can get a surprisingly accurate recording of the President's speech, the Leslie Howard drama (omitting any musical interludes), or the absorbing chatter of the Town Crier.

What to do with such records when you have got them is another problem. You can play them back from twelve to fifteen times before they have lost their quality (the cylinders on which the recordings are made are wax). But the playback has the volume of a telephone, or a little louder, not the full volume of the original radio reception. Four or five people, listening attentively, can hear it at one time, but the record cannot be rebroadcast in a classroom or an auditorium.

It is a pleasure to be able to report that the Dictaphone Corporation, for purposes only indirectly related to ours, have developed a new electrical recording and reproducing machine which

will make for you a far better record of your own voice, or of a telephone conversation, or of a radio broadcast than you could get with the office-type Dictaphone. A few weeks ago we sat in at a demonstration of the new machine in the office of the president of the corporation. The quality of the recording and reproduction was excellent—we tested only speech, but it is likely that the new machine will record and reproduce faithfully most of the range of the musical scale. The reproduction is electrical, electrically amplified. That is, your voice comes back at you through a loudspeaker, with volume enough to fill a large classroom.

The present cost of the machine, a compact, attractive cabinet combining recorder and reproducer, is \$1,050. The price will make it a luxury item, except in large schools where extensive work in speech correction, public speaking, or broadcasting techniques are offered. Inquiries concerning the new machine or the educational services offered by the Dictaphone Corporation may be addressed to Mr. Ovington of the Educational Division, Dictaphone Sales Corporation, 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, N.Y.

J. C. D.

School Law Review

Daniel R. Hodgdon, Ph.D., J.D.
Member of the Bar of New York State

PRO HAC VICE

The theory of the law is that the school teacher's principle duty is, as the name implies, to instruct. The court says that it is essential that a teacher be qualified in point of learning to impart to the pupils the proper and necessary information for which the pupil is sent to school. He should also possess the faculty, skill, or tact of presenting the information given to them in such language and in such manner as their advancement and comprehension will enable them to understand. The teacher is an executive officer, and, as such, must enforce order and decorum in the school; otherwise all his teaching will go for naught. Rules are necessary for the orderly conduct of a school. These should be supplied to the teacher by the board which has the special charge of the school. It is also a duty of the teacher to familiarize himself with the rules of the school. See *McLellan v. Board, etc. Public Schools*, 15 Mo. App. 362; *Ellis v. No. Carolina Inst.*, 68 NC 427; *Lander v. Seaver*, 76 AM Dec. 156, 32 Vt. 114 (May 1859); *Huisse v. Lowell*, 10 Allen 150; *Hodgkins v. Rockport*, 105 Mass 476; *Russell v. Lynnfield*, 116 Id 366; *Dritt v. Snodgrass*, 66 Mo. 280; *Roberts v. Boston*, 5 Cush 209; *Spiller v. Woburn*, 12 Allen 128; *Ferriter v. Tyler*, 48 Vt. 471; *State ex rel Burpee v. Barton*, 45 Wisc. 150.

The Teacher's Right to Make Rules

If the board fails to do this, the teacher has the absolute right to make and promulgate all needful rules, which in his judgment are necessary. It frequently happens also that emergencies arise which require prompt action, and for which the rules do not provide a remedy. In such cases the teacher must act, and his act is binding until the board of school control directs otherwise. See *Sherman v. Charlestown*, 8 Cush 163; *Hodgkins v. Rockport*, supra; *Husse v. Lowell*, supra; *Kidder v. Chellis*, 59 NH 473; *Russell v. Lynnfield*, supra; *State ex rel Burpee v. Barton*, supra; *Dannenhoffer v. State*, 69 Ind. 295.

Contempt of School

Pupils who are guilty of misconduct in the presence of a teacher are guilty of contempt of school which is similar to misconduct in the presence of a court or contempt of court. They may be immediately punished and, where the offense is of such serious nature as to warrant suspension

or expulsion unless prohibited by statute, this may be done without a hearing. Contempt of school, however, outside of the presence of the teacher, like contempt of court, requires a hearing and the pupil must be given a chance to offer a defense and an opportunity to explain his conduct. This raises the important question as to the case where a child is sent to a principal of a school for punishment. The offense was not committed in the presence of the principal but that of the teacher. The pupil according to this rule has a right to be heard in his own defense, before the principal has the right to administer punishment. See 6 R C L 532.

Parent's Power Is Delegated to Teacher

The teacher as the substitute of the parent is charged by law in part with the performance of the parent's duties, and in the exercise of these delegated duties is invested with the parent's power. The law has not undertaken to prescribe stated punishments for particular offenses, but has contented itself with the general grant of the power of moderate correction, and has confided the gradation of punishments within the limits of this grant to the discretion of the teacher. The line which separates moderate correction from immoderate punishment can only be ascertained by reference to general principles.

It is not easy to state with precision the power which the law grants to public-school teachers and principals with respect to the correction of their pupils. It is analogous to that which belongs to parents, and the authority of the teacher is regarded as a delegation of parental authority. The law makes it one of the most sacred duties of parents to train and qualify their children for becoming useful and virtuous members of society, and the courts further maintain that this duty cannot be effectually performed without the ability to command obedience, to control stubbornness, to quicken diligence, and to reform bad habits; and, to enable a teacher to exercise this salutary sway, he is armed with the power to administer moderate correction when he shall believe it to be just and necessary.

Reason for Parents' Right to Correct Child

The power of correction, vested by law in parents, is founded on their duty to maintain and educate their offspring. In support of that authority, the law gives them a right to the exercise of

such discipline as may be requisite for the discharge of their sacred trust. See 2 Kent's Com. 203.

Teacher's Power to Administer Correction

The teacher as the substitute for the parents is legally vested with power to administer moderate and reasonable correction in cases of misconduct, which ought to have some reference to the character of the offense, the sex, age, size, and physical strength of the pupil, power of endurance, etc. When the teacher keeps within the circumscribed sphere of his authority, the degree of correction must be left to his discretion, as it is to that of the parent under like circumstances, and for such exercise of his authority the law gives the parent no right to complain. Within this limit the teacher has the authority to determine the gravity of heinousness of the offense, and to mete out to the offender the punishment which he thinks the pupil's conduct justly merits. The teacher as the parent, *pro hac vice*, exercises judicial functions and acts in judicial capacity. See Boyd v. State, 88 Ala 169.

Very early cases held that the right of the parent to keep the child in order and obedience is secured by the common law. He may lawfully correct his child, being under age, in a reasonable manner, for the law considers this is for the benefit of his education. He delegates a part of his parental authority to the school teacher or schoolmaster of his child, who is then *in loco parentis*, and has such portion of the power of the parent, committed to his charge, for restraint and correction as may be necessary to answer the purpose for which he is employed. See 1 Black Com 453, 454; 1 Hale's P. C. 473, 474.

Liability of Teacher

The common principle of law concerning correction authorizes the school teacher, like the parent, and others *in foro domestico* to chastise moderately pupils under his care, or to inflict moderate correction, under the exercise of a sound discretion (2 Kent's Comm. 203-206). In other words, he may administer reasonable correction, which must not "exceed the bounds of due moderation, either in the measure of it, or in the instrument made use of for the purpose." If he goes beyond this extent, he becomes criminally liable, and if death ensues from the brutal injuries inflicted he may be liable not only for assault and battery, but to the penalties of manslaughter, or even murder, according to the circumstances of the case. See Boyd v. State, 88 Ala 169, 7 S 268, 16 Am S R 31 (1889); 1 Archbold's Comm. Pr. 218; 1 Bishop's Crim. Law, 7th ed. secs. 881, 882.

There are some well-considered authorities which hold teachers and parents alike liable criminally, if, in the infliction of chastisement, they act clearly without the exercise of reasonable judgment and discretion. The test which seems to be fixed by these cases is the general judgment of reasonable men. The more correct view, however, and the one better sustained by authority, seems to be that when, in the judgment of reasonable men, the punishment inflicted is immoderate or excessive, and a jury would be authorized, from the facts of the case, to infer that it was induced by legal malice, or wickedness of motive, the limit of lawful authority may be adjudged to be passed. In determining this question, the nature of the instrument of correction used may have a strong bearing on the inquiry as to motive or intention. See Patterson v. Nutter, 78 Me. 509; 57 Am Rep 818. Boyd v. State, supra.

Corporal Punishment

A school principal or teacher has the legal right to inflict reasonable corporal punishment. He must exercise reasonable judgment and discretion in determining when to punish and to what extent. In determining upon what is a reasonable punishment, the law makes it imperative that various considerations must be regarded—the nature of the offense, the apparent motive and disposition of the offender, the influence of his example and conduct upon others, and the sex, age, size, and strength of the pupil to be punished. Among reasonable persons, much difference prevails as to the circumstances which will justify the infliction of corporal punishment, and the extent to which it may properly be administered. On account of this difference of opinion, and the difficulty which exists in determining what is a reasonable punishment, and the advantage which the teacher has by being on the spot to know all the circumstances, the manner, look, tone, gestures, and language of the offender (which are not always easily described), and thus to form a correct opinion as to the necessity and extent of the corporal punishment, the theory of the law is that considerable allowance should be made to the teacher by way of protecting him in the exercise of his discretion. Especially should he have this indulgence when he appears to have acted from good motives, and not from anger or malice. Hence the teacher is not to be held liable on the ground of excess of punishment, unless the punishment is clearly excessive, and would be held so in the general judgment of reasonable men. If the punishment be thus clearly excessive, then the teacher should be held liable for such excess, though he acted from good motives in inflicting the punishment; and in

his own judgment considered it necessary, and not excessive. But in the eyes of the law, if there is a reasonable doubt whether the punishment was excessive, the teacher should have the benefit of the doubt.

Judge Reeves, in his work on domestic relations, indorses the same view, asserting that the parent and school teacher or principal in imposing chastisement for cause must be considered as acting in a judicial capacity, and are not to be held legally responsible for errors of judgment, although the punishment may appear to the trial court or jury to be reasonable severe, and not proportioned to the offense, provided they act "conscientiously, and from motives of duty." "But," he says further, "when the punishment is, in their opinion, thus unreasonable, and it appears that the parent acted *malo animo*—from wicked motives—under the influence of an unsocial heart, he ought to be liable to damages. For error of opinion, he ought to be excused; but for malice of heart, he must not be shielded from the just claims of the child. Whether there was malice must be judged from the circumstances attending the punishment." See *Boyd v. State*, supra; Reeves on Domestic Relation, 4th ed. 357, 358.

The Right of the Child

The law recognizes, on the one hand, that every child has rights which ought to be protected against the brutality of a cruel teacher or barbarous parent; but the law holds, on the other, it is equally important not to paralyze that power of correction and discipline by the rod, given, as Blackstone asserts, "for the benefit of education," which has for ages been deemed necessary alike on the part of parents to prevent their children from becoming "the victims of bad habits, and thereby proving a nuisance to the community," and on the part of teachers to preserve that discipline of the schools, without which all efforts to promote the education of the present and future generations will prove a lamentable failure. See *Boyd v. State*, supra.; Reeves on Domestic Relation, 367.

The theory of the law is that no regulation of the schoolroom, any more than a law of the State, can be successfully enforced without the aid of coercive penalties. A law without a penalty is in practice a dead letter. Moderate chastisement is established by immemorial usage as the only available terror to vicious and incorrigible evildoers, at least in cases where the more humane law of kindness and moral suasion has proved ineffectual. The court quotes the following as authority for punishment: "Foolishness," said Solomon, "is bound up in the heart of a child, but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him." "The rod and reproof give wisdom, but a child left to himself causeth shame to his mother." And again: "Train up a child in the way he should go, and even when he is old, he will not depart from it." In the words of the court, these words are as true now as they were a hundred generations ago, when they were uttered by the wise man. This right of discipline says the court with the rod, administered without malice or immoderation, has been well characterized as a part of the common law of the schoolroom. The more thoroughly the right is established, as experience in all discipline shows, the less frequent will be the necessity of resorting to its exercise to enforce obedience to the lawful mandates of the parent or of the school teacher.

Malice Defined

The word "malice" as defined by the law does not mean spite or ill-will, but an unlawful state of mind, such a state of mind as one is in when he intentionally does an unlawful act. See *State v. Boyer*, 70 Mo A 156 (1897).

Limit of Authority to Inflict Punishment

The limit of lawful authority for inflicting punishment is passed when, in the judgment of reasonable men, the punishment inflicted is immoderate or excessive, and a jury would be authorized from the facts of the case to infer that it was induced by legal malice, or wickedness of motive, or *male fide*. See *Boyd v. State*, 88 Ala 169.

(Continued in April issue)

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Book Reviews

Philip W. L. Cox, Review Editor

The Organization and Conduct of Teacher Study Groups. Atlanta: State Department of Education, 1935.

This pamphlet, prepared by a committee of teachers of the school districts of Georgia, endeavors to assist the many study groups of the state. Chapter I deals with the listing and purposes of the study groups; Chapter II with plans for organizing and administering them; and Chapter III sets forth topics, outlines, and bibliographies. Appendices follow giving further information that is likely to be helpful to the teachers of the study groups.

Leadership in Instruction, by the COMMISSION ON INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP; PAUL T. RANKIN, Chairman. Washington, D.C.: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Teaching, N.E.A., 1935, 31 pages, 25 cents.

This little pamphlet sets forth twenty-four principles of instructional leadership with explanation and application of each one. To these supervisors who have not read or thought much about their social worlds or their functions during the past quarter century, some of the statements may be new.

The Preparation of Secondary Teachers in Teachers Colleges for Guiding and Directing Extra-Class Activities, by EUGENE S. BRIGGS. Jefferson City, Mo.: State Department of Education, 1935, 115 pages, 85 cents.

While the certification divisions of many State education departments go blithely ahead setting forth requirements in terms of subject-matter specialization and academic cultural background, the State high-school supervisors, curriculum committees, and high-school principals wisely select and retain and advance teachers who address their efforts to the needs and activities of boys and girls. Teacher-training institutions are therefore rapidly coming to face the realities that certificated graduates are not automatically employed graduates, and that scolding high-school principals do not improve the situation. Hence, they turn tardily toward the preparation of teachers of pupils in those activities which are self-motivated.

In this volume, Dr. Briggs has set forth a feasible program of extraclass activities for teachers colleges. It should prove of great value in improving teacher training for high schools.

Manual for Teachers of Adult Elementary Students, compiled by CAROLINE A. WHIPPLE, MARY L. GUYTON, and ELIZABETH C. MORRIS. Washington: American Association for Adult Education in Co-operation with the United States Office of Education, 186 pages.

This manual is a revision of a *Manual for Teachers of Adult Illiterates*, by W. S. Gray, published in 1930. Part I deals with trends, organizations, teachers, community coöperation, grading of students, and aims and organization of instruction. Part II outlines in detail the subject matter and methods appropriate for native-born adults of limited intelligence, and for native-born illiterates; the emphasis throughout is on reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. Part III deals in similar fashion with the instruction of foreign-born adults.

Guidance Working Materials for Junior and Senior High Schools: Manual of Practical Helps for Educators, by FRANK J. CLARK. Seattle, Washington: Frank J. Clark, 1935, 117 pages, \$1.00, plus postage.

Part I of this useful manual deals with the assimilation of new students; Part II with educational guidance; Part III with special group guidance; in Part IV counseling and testing forms used in the Roosevelt High School, Seattle, are reproduced and explained. Many guidance procedures and devices that have been found successful are explained.

Newspaper Stories for Group Guidance, by JOHN MARKS BREWER and CHARLES H. GLIDDEN. New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1935, 250 pages.

This is a book on problems of character. One hundred seventy cases of the responses of many people from many States as gleaned from newspaper articles are cited for the purpose of illustrating (a) how good acts are done, (b) why they are done, and (c) the necessity of planning good acts. These cases are cited to encourage pupils to plan their own personal activities and responses and then to carry out their plans. The discussion method is advocated for the consideration of the cases. Definite criteria for evaluating the cases and the actions of the participants are given.

The contents of the book are divided into ten units dealing with (a) activities in connection with schools, (b) family relationships, (c) citizenship,

(d) vocational life, (e) recreational life and play time, (f) traveling, (g) international relations, (h) misfortune, money and religion, (i) handicaps and danger, and (j) animals. The cases are described as they happened in real life situations and followed with questions for discussion. Any one who reads the book will be impressed with the variety of material presented, its nearness to life situations, its appeal to the imagination, and its potential power in developing a keen appreciation of courtesy, kindness, sincerity, sympathy, fair play, and honesty as worth-while traits for wholesome living. In the hands of a skillful teacher it can be made an effective instrument in the character training program for our young people.

H. H. VAN COTT

Our Dynamic Society, by MABEL A. ELLIOTT, FRANCIS E. MERRILL, DOROTHY G. WRIGHT, and C. O. WRIGHT. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1935, ix + 30 pages, \$1.68.

This book is an attempt to meet the recommendation of the commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association by presenting "a functional approach to the study of high-school sociology." It "aims to develop a critical but sympathetic understanding of society as it is and to build wholesome personal, family, and community attitudes."

The authors approach this ambitious and commendable undertaking through a series of 28 chapters, each one preceded by pictograph or symbolic drawing and a statement of the purposes of the chapter and followed by summarizing questions, class discussions and activities, and community problems. References for students and for teachers, following each chapter include significant recent books, though the absence of the very valuable general books through which nonscholastic men of culture come to understand these problems must be noted; Stuart Chase, the Lynds, Sinclair Lewis, Norman Thomas, and John Spivack are none of them present.

Part I deals with the nature of social organization and disorganization; Part II with the individual: personality, adolescence, delinquency, the homeless, the immigrant, the drunkard, men, women, and children in industry, the unemployed, and the suicide; Part III with the family; and Part IV with the community.

P. W. L. C.

Effect of Improvement in Reading upon the Intelligence of Negro Children, by SHERMAN D. SCRUGGS. Kansas: University of Kansas, 1935, 29 pages.

Does improvement in reading give to Negro children increased facilities for resolving situations commonly met in intelligence tests? If so,

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is the increase constant? And what are the educational implications of the findings? Dr. Scruggs's experimental data justify affirmative answers to the first two questions. More definitely planned reading exercises is his answer to the third question.

Frederick Douglass High School—A Seventeen Year Period Survey, by MASON A. HAWKINS. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1933, 203 pages.

The Frederick Douglass High School has been serving the colored children of Baltimore since 1883, though it has carried its present name, in honor of the eminent freedman, diplomat, and orator, only since 1923. In this dissertation, Dr. Hawkins has dealt with its more permanent features from 1889 to 1927, and more intensively with its program during the period 1910 to 1927. He concludes that, in its curriculum, housing, enrollment, percentage of graduates, administrative and supervisory organization, and faculty, this school has paralleled the public high schools for white children in Baltimore, though its rate of elimination has been somewhat higher. He finds that the scheme of management and the successive revisions of curriculum and method have been well conceived and administered for the better service of the individual pupils and the community. His one recommendation is far more generous opportunities for vocational training.

Science and the Public Mind, by BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, 196 pages, \$2.00.

What is the place of science in modern life? How can it be most effectively brought to the public so as to affect its concepts, attitudes, and practices? How effectively is this desirable education now being carried on? These are the questions implied in the author's positive and constructive treatment of his subject.

Certainly every socially alert person must recognize the unhappy contrasts between the scientific progress of specialists and technologists and the superstitions and careless spirit of nonspecialists and even of many specialists outside their immediate fields. The unscientific attitude of a Millikan when he ventures to speak of economics or politics is shocking.

Science modifies our culture as the common man comes into contact with it. Meantime, the school and university are too earnestly concerned with the abstractions of physics, research in biology, and arithmetical chemistry to pay much attention

to the knowledge and procedures of science which the layman meets day by day.

"This book represents the interaction of many minds called upon to think aloud on various aspects of the relationships between that vague entity called 'science' and that even more vague something known as 'the public.' " This study sought to explore general conditions, trends, and outstanding needs through an assemblage of samples derived from various sources, and to attempt to interpret the findings.

The author concludes that a lack of popular demand for scientific knowledge and method is matched by an indifference on the part of many scientists regarding the public and its scientific, political, and economic problems. He urges that greater emphasis be given to the promotion of hobby interests involving science, to interpretation as against purely informational efforts, to projects which require more activity or participation on the part of the learners, and to cultural outlooks and appreciations through integration of science with psychology, philosophy, and the historical and social studies.

The Quest for Social Justice, 1898-1914, by HAROLD U. FAULKNER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, 390 pages, \$4.00.

Many of us whose graying hair and slowing step dates us as relics of the first decade of this century turn eagerly to each account of affairs of those days in the hope that we may recapture a bit of the optimism and assurance which suffused older youths and younger adults in the days of Theodore Roosevelt's dominance. Mark Sullivan's *Our Times* gave us nostalgia; John Chamberlain's *Farewell to Reform* made us somewhat resentful; Kendrick and Hacker's *History of the United States Since 1865* made us grateful for justifying our vigorous protests; and Lincoln Steffen's *Autobiography* made us feel that though we had done our best, it was not enough.

The reviewer was just eighteen when forty-one-year-old Theodore Roosevelt became President; he was in his early thirties when the World War overwhelmed us. He was happily naïve in accepting the challenge of the young Roosevelt to attack inertia wherever it existed with purpose and hope and confidence. Charlatan he may have been, but to the impressionable and eager young adults of that period Theodore Roosevelt was far more than a dramatic personality; rather was he the very essence of our own selves. When he fought our own muscles grew tense; when he was struck we felt the same unreasoned wrath that he did; when he laughed with gleaming teeth

we caught the cue and pledged ourselves to the strenuous life and the joyous adventure. Our holy grail was social justice; we stood at Armageddon and battled for the Lord!

Professor Faulkner's tone is restrained—as becomes a scholarly historian, but at times he almost catches the spirit, though he seems scarcely conscious of its existence until the Progressive Party was formed in 1912. It was this spirit that was capitalized by Wilson during his first administration; it warmed to his telling phrases. It was this spirit that gave the keynote to our entry into the War—"to make the World safe for Democracy." It was this spirit that the War transmogrified into a will to win, hatred, and vengeance.

Thus Faulkner, like his predecessors, misses the important social psychological phenomenon that alone can make the "Quest for Social Justice" understandable. But he does get the rest of the picture to coincide with the reality as the reviewer knew it.

Universal Free Education, by HOLLIS P. ALLEN. California: Stanford University Press, 1934, 100 pages, \$1.00.

Assuming that educators and educational practices have become mired by the rising flood of universal education, the author of this monograph

has addressed the class of educators who have either foreseen the flood or experienced it and have sought and gained higher ground. "Appropriate future developments of public education will depend upon this class."

For them, Professor Allen presents and discusses the motive and extent of school attendance, the present status of compulsory-attendance laws, proposed retrenchment programs, and economy of education in a democracy. He then explains "An Economical Program of Compulsory Education" and "The Economy Test of Universal Free Education." In connection with this "economical program," he sets forth and applies five guiding principles which he believes should control the program and indicated possible applications of them.

Studies in Articulation of High School and College with Special Reference to the Superior Student (Series I), by HENRY C. MILLS, MAZIE E. WAGNER, RUTH E. SCKERT, MARY E. SARBOUGH; edited by EDWARD S. JONES. University of Buffalo Studies, Volume IX, 1934, 319 pages.

"Concerning one type of student," says Chancellor Capen in the foreword of this volume, "there is, at least in theory, no substantial disagreement. No one questions that the superior student should

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Throughout this otherwise very valuable study there is a naïve assumption that superiority may be defined in terms of academic ability and zeal—though the author of the summary chapter recognizes that the validity of this assumption rests on the implied premise that what and how the University of Buffalo teaches and tests delimits the problem of "superiority." For the superior student so defined and selected, the provision for anticipating during his high-school years a part of his college work as is now done by the Univer-

sity of Buffalo is *one* defensible mode of treatment. It is not, however, the only reasonable solution nor necessarily the best one.

Handbook on the Federal Child Labor Amendment. National Child Labor Committee, New York. Prepared by the Department of Research and Publicity. Paper, 64 pages, \$.15.

The mill towns have their children tending looms. The onion fields and cranberry bogs are harvested with the help of too many hands that are small. The cities have acres of lofts where pale youngsters spend long hours making bright silk flowers, embroidered butterflies, and buxom pink-cheeked dolls. Cities and towns, east and west, still allow the shameless pretenses by which children are employed at all hours to distribute newspapers.

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J. C. D.

New Governments of Europe, edited by RAYMOND LESLIE BUELL. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1934, \$2.00.

This book deals with the new governments of Italy, Germany, the Baltics, Russia, and Spain. It tends to show the general trend toward dictatorship. Italy and Germany are given the greater amounts of space.

The style is nontechnical and well adapted to the high-school level. Citations to newspapers and magazines are included liberally.

The book is recommended by the reviewer to

those people who wish a résumé of changes in and history of the governments of those countries since the World War.

C. M. BENNETT

The Historical Approach to Methods of Teaching the Social Studies. Fifth Yearbook, The National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1935, 204 pages.

The yearbook consists of six parts dealing with the influence in methods on (1) curricular purposes, (2) pedagogical scholarship, (3) subject field, (4) teaching aids, (5) special groups, and (6) evaluation. The contributions that seem of greatest value to the reviewer are those of Dean Benjamin: Social Reconstruction and Method, in which he emphasizes the role of method in the accomplishment of great social purposes; Dr. Tonne: Methods of Teaching Economics—Past, Present, and Future, in which he stresses the advantages of initiating the student into his study of economic life in terms of word pictures, situations, and problems; Miss Glick: The Rise of Visual Aids in Teaching the Social Studies—Past and Present, in which modest statements of their values replace the exaggerated claims that are to often hullabalooed; and Professor Kronberg:

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The Influence of Objective Testing on Methods of Teaching, in which he concludes that the regular use of standardized tests has tended to routinize teaching, but implies that objective tests, could they be so constructed as to measure desirable outcomes, might have great and beneficial effects upon method.

Educational Psychology and Some Aspects of Education in Latin America, by TEOBALDO CASANOVA. San Juan, P. R.: Imprenta Venezuela, 170 pages.

A study of recent trends in education in eight Latin-American countries with emphasis on the developments in the teaching of general and educational psychology and applications of tests. The investigator concludes that many aspects of psychology having great importance for teachers—learning, motivation, individual differences, and achievement—do not as yet receive the emphasis that they deserve and that only very recently have tests and the technics of experimental research been introduced in Latin-American countries.

Our American Heritage from Wilderness to Nation (volume I), by LILLIAN S. COYLE and WALTER P. EVANS. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, xvii + 303 pages, \$1.08.

Here is a new type of textbook. It places its emphasis upon the method of procedure for the pupil rather than upon the subject matter to be "learned." The treatment of history is topical and geography and civics are so woven in as to contribute largely to both the pupil's interest and his understanding of the topics.

The book consists of three large units: How America Became a "Land of Opportunity"; "How the West Was Won"; and "The Making of American Citizens." Each unit contains several topics which serve as centers of organization and study. They consist of a few pages of text material for orientation and motivation, followed by check tests, problems and questions, suggested activities, and reading lists. It is in this direction that newer texts will tend.

Activities in the Public Schools, by MARGARET GUSTIN and MARGARET L. HAYES. Chapel Hill, N. C.: The University of North Carolina Press, 1934, 290 pages.

The richly illustrated exposition of projects undertaken by the children and their teachers of rural and consolidated elementary schools of Cartaret and Craven Counties, North Carolina, typifies the kind of educational literature that should be made more readily available to teachers,

supervisors, and boards of education. From such a book we get stimulation and confidence; it carries with it a sense of reality such as exhortation for and philosophical justification of activity programs lack. "The book is, therefore, heartening," says Dr. Fannie W. Dunn in the introduction, "in that it represents the application of approved educational theory and practice in average and below average public school situations."

For these reasons, this book should be in the professional libraries of all elementary schools and of very many individual teachers and of citizens who are interested in vitalizing the educational procedures of schools and communities.

Improving the Insurance Program in the Local School Districts, by N. E. VILES. Jefferson City, Mo.: Midland Printing Company, 1934, 100 pages.

School districts of the United States pay large sums of money in insurance premiums each year to secure protection against fire and tornado loss of the six billions of dollars worth of school property. Dr. Viles concludes that there are needs for better evaluations, inventories, and inspections of fire hazards of school property; that boards of education should use a specific schedule policy to simplify the administration of the insurance program; and that co-insurance and longer term policies should be more generally used than at present. By such means, he states, the boards of education of two hundred schools studied have obtained or could obtain a forty per cent reduction in insurance costs.

Wyoming Educational Problems. Bulletin No. 4, Wyoming Educational Association Report of Class at University of Wyoming, 34 pages.

The Enlarged Local School Districts as an Administrative Means of Equalizing Educational Opportunity. Bulletin No. 5, Wyoming Educational Association 1935, sponsored by Wyoming Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Here are two reports that should be inspirations to college teachers of functional education and to State councils of education. In the first pamphlet is a report of Dr. Oscar C. Schwiering's summer-school class. It deals with those very problems that are facing the members of the class: (1) minimum educational program; (2) equalization of educational opportunities; (3) sources of revenue; (4) type of local unit; (5) pupil transportation; (6) teacher selection, preparation, etc.; (7) rural school supervision; (8) the isolated

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pupil; and (9) records. In the appendix are suggested problems for future study.

The second pamphlet is a more thorough study of No. 4 of these topics. In terms of the possibility and needs for better school districts, Professor Schwiering sets forth a feasible plan for the consideration of, and probable support by, the State Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools, by J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935, 117 pages.

Are "progressive" practices in elementary and secondary schools better or worse than those they attempt to replace? How valuable are they when measured against some more absolute criteria? These are questions on which we have needed far more objective data than have been available. Lacking such data, opinion has been unchecked; often more heat than light has accompanied discussions of relative values.

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At the secondary-school level, he finds some advantage in achievement for pupils who have had newer type instruction over those who have had conventional instruction in all academic subjects, except mathematics in which results were even. With regard to intellectual, dynamic, and performance factors the overwhelming advantages lay with the newer type procedure. It would seem that the findings of these investigations should put a quietus on the rather irresponsible talk of opponents of curriculum experimentation at all levels.

The Thorndike-Century Junior Dictionary, by E. L. THORNDIKE. Chicago: Scott Foresman and Company, 1935, 970 pages, \$1.32.

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This valuable book contains 23,281 defined words based on a count of the actual occurrences of words in over ten million words of reading matter; to each word is attached a number showing its importance as measured by the frequency and range of occurrence. The definitions of these words have a refreshing simplicity and directness; properly they are longer and more concrete than those which adults might be expected to understand—though adults themselves will use this dictionary with satisfaction for this very same reason. The arrangement of meanings follows the principle: literal uses before figurative, general uses before special, common uses before rare, and easily understandable uses before difficult.

The book contains 1,610 pictures presumably on the principle that "one good picture is better than a thousand words." Attention is given to many very significant details such as the separation of syllables without unduly decreasing the resemblance of the word in the dictionary to the word as it appears in reading, the definition of derivatives, diacritical marks, and protection against eyestrain. The type face and general make-up of the pages are clear and attractive.

The Social Ideas of American Educators, by MERLE E. CURTI. Part X, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935, xxii + 613 pages, \$3.00.

In these days, when so many of our educational leaders are being accused of radicalism, it is most interesting to find in Professor Curti's book the evidences of the social ideas of our precursors. Before the War between the States free universal education had been successfully achieved by educational leaders aided by public men and labor leaders against the opposition of conservatives, industrialists, religious sectarians, and class-conscious elites. They carried their fight to the people, promising them a classless society, health, happiness, and the elimination of crime, poverty, intemperance, and the more crass and indefensible practices of industrial and financial capitalism. The people supported their program and free schools were established.

In the period 1860-1914, however, Curti concludes that educators for the most part followed politicians and men of affairs rather than helped initiate and direct public policies. They thus reflected the "general planlessness, a love of freedom, of individual enterprise, and of open goals (which) have been characteristic of American life." Reformers there have been—Curti reviews the ideas of Booker T. Washington, W. T. Har-

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ris, Bishop Spaulding, Francis W. Parker, G. Stanley Hall, E. L. Thorndike, and John Dewey—but they have been individualistic in their effort to promote democracy and the good life for all; they have underestimated the community forces and practices that have nullified their best efforts.

Only in recent years have some "few educators transcended the conservative pattern in their social thinking"; perhaps, Professor Curti is unduly influenced in making this statement by the fact that until now they have been unable to command audiences. Perhaps he is not well acquainted with the real leaders of 1908-1914; the reviewer is at least surprised to find no reference to Paul H. Hanus, Edward O. Sisson, Frederick Carleton, Edward Lee, John Collier, and only an opinion regarding Thorndike quoted from Henry Suzzallo.

Pennsylvania Curriculum Studies. Harrisburg, Pa.: Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Public Instruction. No. 78: Organization and Administration of Extension Centers, Schools, and Classes; No. 84: A Course of Study in Bookkeeping for Senior High Schools; No. 86: Parent Education; No. 87: Conference Planning and Leadership as Applied to Foremanship Training; No. 88: Reporting Pupil Progress; No. 95: The

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The National Council of Teachers of English (Chicago) has issued study guides for *Little Women*, *Alice in Wonderland*, *The Emperor Jones*, *Treasure Island*, *Great Expectations*, *The Little*

Minister, and *David Copperfield*, all but the last two of which are, however, out of print.

In this connection, attention is called to the launching of *The News Letter*, published monthly, November to June, by the Bureau of Publications, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio (free). This four-page leaflet brings to the interested teacher information about the radio, the press, and the motion picture. It is subsidized by the Payne Fund and aims to assist teachers and pupils to develop a discriminating and selective attitude toward these potent media of communication.

Beppo and Lucia, Children of Sunny Italy, by VIRGINIA OLCOTT, with illustrations by STANACE WHITEMORE. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934, vii + 168 pages.

This little book is one of an attractive series by the same author, called the World's Children. It is intended for children of the elementary grades. The excuse for its review in this journal is its universal appeal. The customs of these Italian children, Beppo and Lucia, are those in which Italians share. And in Miss Olcott's stories American youths and adults will find great pleasure and vicarious experience. Indeed, several of the reviewer's graduate students have read this book with great admiration for its authenticity and for

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Civic Education in the United States, by CHARLES E. MERRIAM. Part VI, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934, 196 pages.

The author of this volume was one of the members of the Social Studies Commission who refused to sign the "Conclusions and Recommendations." One reads his book with peculiar interest, therefore, to discover what emphasis or reservation he has, which caused him to dissent. To this reviewer, however, the search is in vain.

The book opens with a summary of Dr. Merriam's findings and conclusions: that social science is the master key to civic education; that an understanding of the growth of social science and an appreciation of social invention are indispensable; that technological revolution is already upon us; that our instability is due to our policy of drift and indifference to recent trends; that successful

reorganization presupposes a climate friendly to new ideas and institutions; that the pattern of politics needs changing since tradition is a good servant but a hard master; that "civic progress may flourish on the hopes of the future as well as on the memories of the past"; and that "the alternative to enlightened civic education is a program of power and violence with unwelcome forms of coercion and restraint." Similarly he continues with brief paragraphs concerning democracy and civic education; civic education and social training; civic education and recent trends; civic education and political realism; civic education and defeatism; teacher and taught; and the goal of civic education. It is a temptation to quote or at least to abstract them all, but space forbids.

The book itself consists of thirteen chapters: I The Problem of American Democracy; II The New Orientation; III The Goal; IV Concurrent Agencies of Civic Education; V and VI Integration of Civic Education with Social Training; VII Special Instruments of Civic Education; VIII Trends in Government; IX The Techniques of Politics; X Political Realism; XI Idealism and Government; XII Teacher and Taught; XIII Conclusion.

It should be read by every intelligent and alert American citizen.

Annuaire International de l'Education de l'Enseignement, 1934. Geneva: Bureau International d'Education, 479 pages.

This valuable yearbook contains general information and statistics furnished by the Ministries of Public Instruction of some fifty-three countries, as compared with thirty-five countries represented in the first yearbook, 1933. So parochial are most American schoolmen that we are scarcely conscious of the alert and vigorous international institution that endeavors to stimulate national governments throughout the world to make adequate provision for public education, and to extend recognition to each country that in any respect makes significant progress.

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country, are a veritable gold mine both for the student of comparative education and for all others who seek to orient the developments of American education in terms of the trends of social institutions of the entire world.

The World at Work, by A. C. ANDERSON, PAUL IRVINE, AND H. C. PANNELL. Auburn, Alabama: Prather Publishing Company, 1935, 267 pages.

This textbook and study guide of occupational information, prepared by three members of State teacher-preparatory institutions in Alabama, is published in an experimental edition. On the basis of the experience of its users it is hoped later to publish a more definitive text. Part I deals with problems of the home, school, and community; part II with the fields of occupation in America. Each problem contains a well-written, motivating statement, followed by suggested readings and by learning exercises calling for reflection or for other activity—collections to be made, talks to be given, etc. Many of the completion-test type of exercises seem somewhat puerile and verbalistic, but most of the activities are significant. The shortcoming of the book, if it is a shortcoming, lies not in the efforts of the authors, but in the questionable validity of the assumption that learning the facts about twenty-five vocations does help the student to select wisely among them.

Music Teaching in the Elementary Grades, by GEORGE E. HUBBARD. New York: American Book Company, 1934, 240 pages, \$2.00.

Hubbard's book, now standard reading for term papers at university schools of music, is an evenly tempered deliberate review of the constant forces which must be reckoned with in the application of other's theories or of the teacher's own ingenuity. Musical experience before formal instruction is his formula for the musical development of elementary-grade children. He has faith in the human forces underlying music work.

The God-given ear receives his homage; he makes an earnest plea for opportunities for it to

function and to discriminate. The glorious future of singing is kept in view throughout the book; to the delight of instrumental teachers the principles and practices which he advocates will ground pupils for orchestras and bands as well as for singing. Musical testing is discussed with insight and discrimination, but it is properly subordinated to musical experience and appreciation.

PHILIP W. L. COX, JR.

The Mathematics of Everyday Life, by GEORGE A. BOYCE. Unit I, The Financial Relationships of Children to Parents. Bronxville, New York: Bronxville Bookstore, 1935, 69 pages.

In this little book we have a very significant break with the tradition of mathematics as a series of topics of classification of concepts and skills. The slow progress of motivating mathematics by ever richer applications to significant social or individualistic situations gives way frankly in this book to a treatment of the social-individualistic situation which involves quantitative thinking out of which grows the need for mathematical concepts and manipulations.

It will be welcomed by all teachers and supervisors who have for so many years been restless under the social compulsions to teach mathematics for no other reason than the fact that it has "belonged" in the curriculum. Their rationalizations and unconvincing "justifications" and shibboleths; e.g., "God always geometrizes," "Mathematics is the Queen of the Sciences," etc., they can now discard. For at last they have a substantial basis for supporting the claims of mathematics in the progressive school.

Succeeding units to be published will deal with the economics of health, the economics of leisure, and measuring land, sky, and sea. Finally, however, surrender or compromise apparently becomes necessary, so fundamental drill exercises and diagnostic tests and survey of algebra will be Units V and VI respectively. However, one does not have to use these units, if he sees no reason for them in a junior-high-school course for all pupils.

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